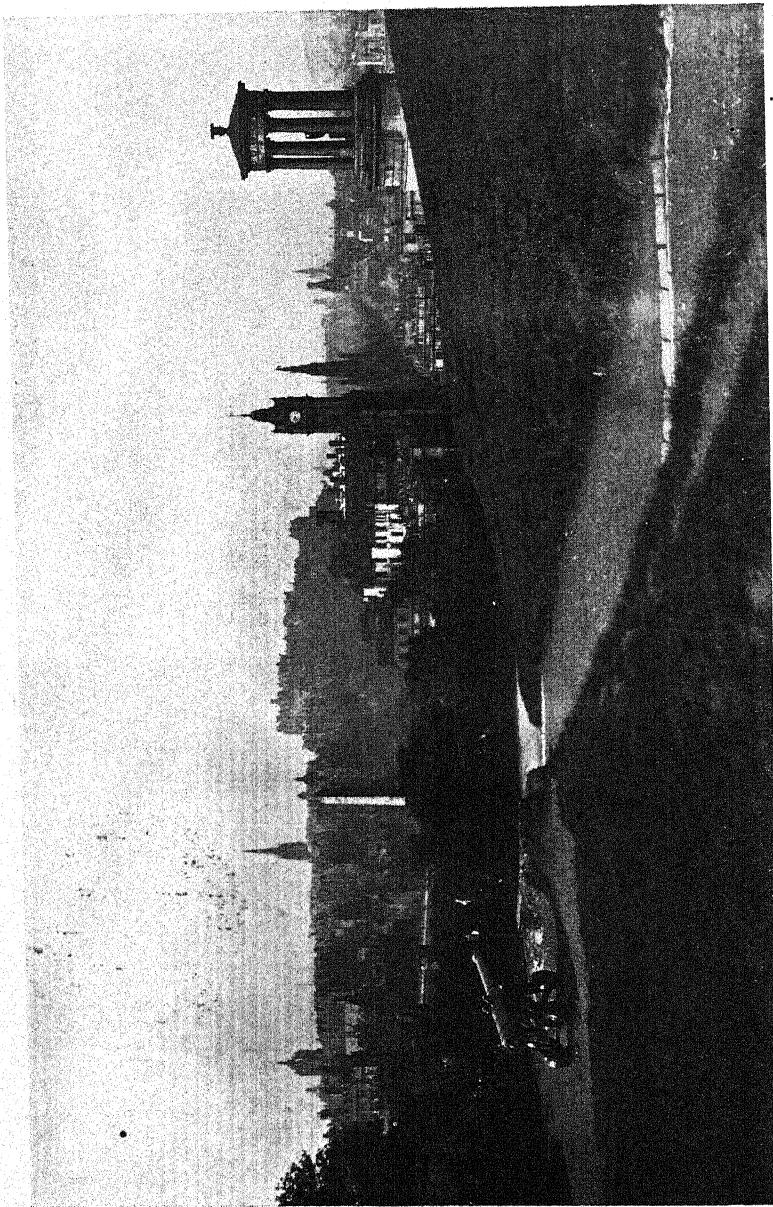


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By GEORGE C. PRINGLE, M.A.

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EDINBURGH FROM CALTON HILL



World Education

PROCEEDINGS OF THE

First Biennial Conference of the World
Federation of Education Associations
held at Edinburgh, July 20 to July 27

1925

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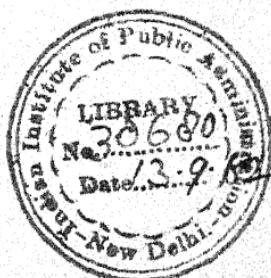
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Edited by

GEORGE C. PRINGLE, M.A.

Joint Secretary of the Conference and General
Secretary of the Educational Institute of Scotland

VOLUME I.



EDINBURGH :

Scottish National (Conference) Committee
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WORLD FEDERATION OF EDUCATION ASSOCIATIONS

PREFACE

The World Federation of Education Associations was founded at San Francisco in July 1923. Its constitution made provision for a World Conference every two years, and a Scottish National Committee, promoted by the Educational Institute of Scotland and representative of all the Educational interests of Scotland, administrative and academic, invited the Directors of the Federation to hold the First Biennial Conference in Edinburgh in July 1925.

The invitation was accepted. The Conference was attended by over 1500 Delegates from over fifty Nations and lasted from 20th to 27th July.

The Proceedings consist of two volumes comprising full reports of the various public, delegate and group meetings with verbatim reports of the more important addresses and debates. They also contain reports of the messages delivered at luncheons and at public meetings by representative delegates from distant lands. Short descriptive articles of Tours, Receptions, Concerts and Film Exhibitions are also given along with a summary of the Resolutions adopted at the final Plenary Meeting.

It is hoped these will provide a full and accurate account of the Proceedings at the First Biennial Conference of the World Federation of Education Associations and material on which the programme of the second Con-

PREFACE.

ference in 1927 will be built, as well as a book of reference for students of World Movements in Education.

The Appendixes and the Indexes will it is hoped add to the usefulness of the volumes, and the illustrations may be regarded as souvenirs from the Scottish National Committee of one of the most glorious days of a glorious summer in Scotland, rendered for ever memorable by the visit to this country of so many distinguished and friendly representatives of foreign nations, whom they were proud and happy to entertain.

My warm acknowledgments are due to my friend Mr B. Skinner for his valuable assistance in correcting the proofs.

G. C. P.

WORLD FEDERATION OF EDUCATION

ASSOCIATIONS

EDINBURGH CONFERENCE, JULY, 1925

Editorial Committee :--

Sir CHARLES CLELAND.

Miss MARY TWEEDIE.

Mr J. W. CRITCHLEY.

Mr GEORGE C. PRINGLE.

(Chairman and Editor).

INTRODUCTION.

Three main factors determined the Programme of the Conference. The topics for discussion had to be selected with reference to the remits from the San Francisco Meeting in 1923; the Headquarters of the Federation, through the President, had to exercise an advisory control as regards topics and speakers; and the Scottish National Committee had to assume responsibility not only for the general arrangements but also for adequate representation of the local element.

The difficulties of the Committee in collaborating with Headquarters were to a considerable extent overcome through an agreement by which Headquarters made itself responsible for one half of the number of groups and the Local Committee for the other half as well as for the general arrangements.

The Groups selected by the Local Committee were:—
(1) Adolescent Education, (2) Adult Education, (3) Universities, (4) Health, (5) Teacher Training, (6) International Relations; leaving for Headquarters —
(1) Pre-School Education, (2) Primary Education, (3) Secondary Education, (4) Character Education (5) Illiteracy.

For these eleven Groups or Sections Headquarters and the Local Committee provided the Chairmen, Secretaries and leading Speakers, with mutual assistance where necessary. This co-operation was particularly useful in the case of the Pre-School and Health Sections.

This arrangement explains the lack of uniformity in the syllabus of the various Sections; why, for example, some Sections had only one or two sederunts, while others had three; why also some Sections were furnished with detailed syllabuses, while for others the lines of discussion

INTRODUCTION.

and the summarising of results were left to the meeting under the guidance of the Chairman. The deliberate policy of the Local Committee was in fact to allow as much time for discussion and as much freedom of treatment, while that of Headquarters was to give as much guidance, as possible. The experiment was worth while and will no doubt prove useful in preparing the programme of the next Conference in 1927.

The Group Meetings or Sections (the terms were used indiscriminately), although distributed throughout the programme on various days, are brought together in the report, and the other meetings or functions are similarly grouped for convenient reference.

As to the more ceremonial or informal functions in the Programme, it may be stated that the Scottish National Committee attached great importance to the provision of suitable opportunities for friendly intercourse amongst the delegates. The need for continuing in future such provision on the same scale may be a matter of opinion; but when the foundations of the Federation are, as it were, only being laid down, the need for a proper atmosphere and the creation of a favourable popular sentiment are absolutely essential. Further, opportunities were thus afforded for discussion on matters of detail impossible at the stated meetings and also occasions provided for speakers who had been charged to deliver messages from the countries or governments whom they represented. Finally, the delegates were also enabled to learn something of educational and social conditions in Scotland which would not have been possible otherwise.

That some delegates might have reason to feel disappointment at lack of opportunity to deliver their message is not improbable; but where they had to return with their message undelivered every effort has been made to have the message included in the printed Proceedings.

INTRODUCTION.

The Resolutions at the end of Volume II. represent the substance of the decisions reached by the various Sections after submission to the Plenary Assembly. In this form they may be taken to represent the considered opinion of the Conference as a whole.

It may be asked : Were the labour and money expended on the Conference justified by the results? The obvious reply is : the results are largely yet to be seen. But if immediate results are to be considered the answer is most emphatically in the affirmative. The fact of the Conference was its highest justification quite apart from the papers read or speeches made.

A word may be permitted on the subject matter of the Proceedings. In the first place, these contributions, spoken or written, whether prepared or impromptu, acquired a special significance on this account. A World Conference of 1550 Delegates from over fifty different Countries, all interested in Education, all eager to promote international goodwill, all frankly ready to indicate the path that leads to it and the obstacles in the way towards it, was a unique event in the history of the world. No doubt the Conference is not the only one of the sort that has been held, but it was the unanimous verdict of all present that never before had there been an assembly of the kind so distinguished for its size, for the variety and width of interests it represented, or for the personal or official distinction of its delegates.

But it may also be asserted that many of the contributions possess a value of their own which more than justify their being placed on permanent record in these volumes.

The aim of the Editorial Committee has therefore been, as it were, to re-create the atmosphere of the Conference by publishing the Proceedings in verbatim form. They are thus more certain not only to serve the

INTRODUCTION.

interest of those who were present at the Conference, but what is of as much importance, to arouse an equal interest in the minds of those who were absent.

Considering the varied nationalities present the points of agreement on the part of the delegates were strikingly numerous and not determined by racial or national distinctions. Those of difference that emerged were concerned mainly with methods; but fundamental agreement on the clamant need for international goodwill and co-operation and the conviction that these aims could only be ultimately achieved through education, were manifested in the most striking and unanimous manner all through the Proceedings.

It will be noticed that certain addresses received their due meed of approval and more rarely of disapproval from the audience, while in the reports of others such indications are wanting. This is due to the fact that these latter had to be printed from the typescript and not from the shorthand reports.

It may be added that the Editorial Committee does not, of course, hold itself responsible for the accuracy of statements made in the discussions or in the papers that were read or contributed to the Proceedings.

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DELEGATE ASSEMBLY.

Monday, 20th July.

The President, Mr A. O. Thomas, Augusta, Maine, U.S.A., in the Chair.

PRESIDENTIAL MESSAGE.

Dr THOMAS : Members of the Delegate Assembly of the first Biennial Meeting of the World Federation of Education Associations, Greetings :

This message will be more like that of the president of a business concern to its stockholders. Its purpose will be to deal with questions and policies which confront the Federation at the present time and to detail briefly the general trend of its activities.

First, however, I wish to express the pleasure of the Association in coming to this historic city to hold its first biennial meeting, not only because Edinburgh is one of the most remarkable cities of the world, but because of the high quality of its schools and its sympathy for the movement we represent. It is interesting, also, to meet on British soil, because the British people have interests in every part of the world and have come more directly in contact with all peoples than any other nation. Their business interests have necessitated a sympathetic policy in dealing with peoples of other lands, and the spirit of co-operation has necessarily been one of the chief features of these associations. Personally, it is gratifying inasmuch as the beginnings of my own country are traced in origin to the soil of this great country. I must voice the sentiment of the delegates assembled from many nations when I express our pleasure in the acceptance of the invitation of the Educational Institute of Scotland to make Edinburgh the place of meeting.

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THE SCOTTISH COMMITTEE EFFICIENT.

The joint committee made up of local educational and civic organizations and headed by Secretary George C. Pringle, as secretary, deserves special commendation for the efficient manner in which it has made arrangements for this meeting, which bids fair to be one of the outstanding and most important events of the generation. The committee has not only raised generous funds with which to carry on its work but has looked after the details in connection with the pleasure and comfort of the delegates.

It is no small task to find world-wide educational contacts; to make known the purpose of this organization and to secure delegates who will undertake at their own expense the long journey necessary. The San Francisco meeting in 1923 demonstrated, however, that educational workers in all lands are liberal in their views and anxious to promote the general interests of the teaching profession. They believe that education is the moulding and directing force of civilization, and that the time and means required to attend such a meeting are well repaid. During the preliminaries of that first Conference more than one thousand contacts in all the countries of the world were effected and established. These are becoming more easily reached year by year and within a short time will constitute a very satisfactory means of communication especially in securing delegates. The work carried on this year by the officers of the Federation and the local committee will make it easier when the call comes for the second biennial meeting to arouse an interest and to secure the same high class of delegates who make up this Conference.

INFLUENCES OF CONFERENCE OF 1923.

The Conference of 1923 established a definite programme of procedure calculated to secure international co-

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operation in educational enterprises; to foster the dissemination of information concerning education in all forms and among all peoples; to cultivate international goodwill and to promote the interests of peace throughout the world. It recommended, first, that an educational *attaché* recognized as an educational expert of the highest rank, should be provided for each embassy or legation.

Second, that the various governments, universities, schools and other educational organizations of the world be requested to appropriate a reasonable sum available for scholarships for mature graduate students of education desiring to study in foreign countries, and that these students should especially devote their attention to international civics, economics, and comparative education, reporting the results of their studies and research to their respective governments, universities, schools and other educational organisations.

Third, that this Conference form a permanent federation of education associations and that a temporary constitution be adopted, the name of this organization to be the World Federation of Education Associations.

Fourth, that steps should be taken to bring about a greater unification of scientific terminology.

Fifth, that the World Conference on Education undertake the organization of a permanent bureau of research and publicity, whose duties it shall be to publish an International Digest of Education, and to furnish information concerning the publications on education of different countries in order to facilitate the exchange of periodicals and articles.

Sixth, that a universal library bureau be established which might ultimately be connected with a world or international university.

Seventh, that a representative committee be appointed to investigate the question of the establishment of a world university.

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Eighth, that the International Educational Association undertake at once a study of ways and means to assist national educational bodies to see that the preparation of text-books and other methods of instruction employed by their own countries is governed by fairness and goodwill.

Ninth, that the World Conference on Education request the proper educational body of each country to outline for its own schools a system of training that will cultivate in children attitudes of mind and habits of thought and action appropriate to effective membership in this world community, such outlines to be presented to the next world conference for comparison, discussion, and publication throughout the world.

Tenth, that the Conference adopt in outline a basic plan of character education to be worked out in detail by each co-operating nation.

Eleventh, that a universal aim in teaching the history of a country should be to teach the social, economic, and political development of the nation, and to show the relationships of these three lines of activities to similar lines of development in other countries.

Twelfth, that as a means of promoting the spirit of international goodwill, a day in the year, to be designated "Good Will Day," be observed in the schools of the world. The 18th of May, which commemorates the opening of the first Hague Conference—the first gathering of the nations in time of peace for the consideration of means of settling international differences by peaceful methods—is an especially appropriate day for concentrating upon the ideals of justice and world friendship.

Thirteenth, that aid and encouragement be given as far as conditions and resources may permit for the improved professional training of teachers and leaders in health education, by the offering of scholarships for study and training in countries which may provide desirable facilities for such professional training.

Fourteenth, that an international commission on

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illiteracy be appointed, consisting of representatives from every nation to work towards the relief of illiteracy from all countries as soon as possible.

Fifteenth, that public provision be made for training in the specific vocations for all persons who may profit therefrom, regardless of age or condition.

Sixteenth, that in the several countries where sufficient opportunity for the higher training of women does not exist the attendance of women upon State and national institutions of learning shall be permitted.

Seventeenth, that this Conference generally endorse all movements which tend to improve the educational opportunities for all rural children.

Eighteenth, that special State or national aid be given to communities lacking the financial resources to maintain efficient schools.

Nineteenth that suggestions be formulated for the most effective use of all forms of visual education in the promotion of international justice and goodwill.

Twentieth, that the Conference endorse the development of international school correspondence and the appointment of an educational representative in each country to co-operate with all agencies equipped to work with the schools in the promotion and execution of similar programmes.

The outstanding achievements in the intervening two years based upon this programme are, first, an awakening in the relief of illiteracy; an added impetus to international correspondence among school children; a beneficial study of world contacts; some nations have already appointed educational attachés in connection with their embassies, Mexico being the first to act upon the suggestion of the World Conference of 1923 in this respect. May 18th International Goodwill Day has been celebrated to some extent in practically all lands and the beginning has been made of a collection of textbook materials, the dissemination of educational information through magazine articles,

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and the exchange of periodicals has made a beginning. We have been handicapped to some extent by lack of funds, which handicap in due season will be overcome and more rapid progress will be made. Committees have been appointed to consider the idea of a World University and a World Commission on Illiteracy has been established. Reports on these subjects as upon several others will be made during this Conference and plans for pursuing work considered.

OUR AIMS MUST NOT BE SIDE TRACKED.

As time goes on the Federation must necessarily accept many avenues of service and must come into vital contact with educational advancement in many forms, but it must never lose sight of the first principles under which it operates. It must never be allowed to become entangled with political contentions nor must it allow itself to become partisan in regard to religious questions. It must occupy a broad plain of universal truth and must steer clear of those rocks upon which nations may split. Purely educational problems of all phases may be courageously discussed and fearlessly advocated. It must be understood at the outset that this is no attempt to break down national lines and to reduce the love of country which citizens of each nation must feel. Our whole purpose is to build a type of civilization and to develop those civic virtues which commend themselves to the patriotic citizen, and with it to develop a patriotism upon service and love of country rather than upon hatred of other peoples.

PEACE AND WAR.

Perhaps universal and perpetual peace is the greatest issue before the people of the world. Our generation has suffered the clash of arms to greater destruction than any other generation. War is a hang-over of barbaric days. It is not an art of civilization. War as a means of settling disputes between nations is an index of the degree of

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development of civilization. It is liable to continue for generations yet to come, but this generation, which has had its lesson, should do all in its power to advance the time when "spears shall be beaten into pruning hooks and swords into ploughshares." The last war involved the destruction of nearly two hundred billions of wealth and settled a debt almost as large upon the necks of the nations. This debt may be a bone of contention for generations to come, but more appalling is the loss of human life. If the dead of the past war could be marched ten abreast with the ranks two seconds apart, it would require forty-six days for the columns of the dead to pass the reviewing stand. We as teachers must do our best to develop in the hearts of the rising generation the spirit of brotherly love and the attitude of the good neighbour. We must practise the Golden Rule among nations as among individuals. We are the keepers of the young and can direct their interest and their attitudes. We should support the nations in their attempt at mutual reduction of arms until such time as arms may be laid aside; but disarmament alone will not bring peace. We might conscript wealth and materials as well as fighting men and still not prevent war, but these will help. War is of the heart. We must believe with Ella Blair Jordan that

"In hearts too young for enmity,
There lies the way to make men free;
When children's friendships are world-wide
New ages will be glorified.
Let child love child, and strife will cease,
Disarm the hearts, for that is peace."

AMEND OUR CONSTITUTION.

At San Francisco we adopted a temporary constitution under which we are now operating. It has many shortcomings. It will be the duty of this Convention to make such amendments as will facilitate the work we are attempting to do. As President, I have appointed a com-

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mittee, which will report at this meeting on the revision of the constitution, but the appointment of such a committee does not interfere nor hinder others who have ideas as to the organic structure of the Federation making beneficial suggestions. First, there should be a board of trustees made up not alone of educators, but of men of affairs well known for their business integrity and their successful handling of investments. The committee should be large enough to safeguard the interests of all. It should have charge of the raising of funds for a definite financial foundation and to some extent of the organization. In addition, there should be an executive committee similar to that now provided by our constitution which should have charge of activities.

We should have, first of all, a delegate assembly made up of a definite number of members from each member organisation. This assembly should not be too large, with not less than five nor more than ten from each. If ten members should be selected, and all nations should have organisations, we would eventually have a Delegate Assembly of six or seven hundred members. This might make a rather unwieldy organisation, but for the present it would not be too many. There should be one organisation of national scope whose delegates should sit in the Delegate Assembly. But this is not sufficient. It is necessary for us to come into contact with the whole teaching force world-wide, the five million teachers teaching the quarter of a billion of the world's children. Therefore, there should be admitted all educational organizations, probably as associate members, whose delegates would have the right to participate in the several units, with the right of participation in all affairs apart from those which are constitutional.

There should also be participating representatives from all kindred organizations which are interested in the work we are doing. In addition to these, there should be sus-

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taining members and patrons of the Federation. Whether or not these patrons should be allowed to vote in the General Assembly is a question for this meeting to determine.

There should be, first, a Delegate Assembly, second, a plenary session, which would act as a sort of lower house, and, third, the groups or units open to institutions and individuals, who would be interested in assisting the Federation in its deliberations.

FINANCE.

The very nature of the work we attempt will require generous financing. It is not too much to undertake to place the Federation on a permanent financial basis of at least ten millions. This cannot be secured immediately, but eventually it is a possibility. Until the foundation is laid, however, there should be a definite programme of temporary finance of at least one hundred thousand per year. I am satisfied from my contact with people of means that this programme is not too much to undertake, and that we can secure through the direction of a board of trustees sufficient funds to carry on our work. Education is fast becoming recognised by diplomats and by business men as our surest means of progress. We cannot content ourselves with merely coming together occasionally and discussing ways and means, educational methods, educational procedure, and educational attitudes, all of which would be well and somewhat worth while, but we must offer a definite and constructive programme of educational work to the world if we are to justify our existence to the fullest extent. To carry on the work of the various departments, to provide a suitable staff of workers and to pay the necessary expenses, the amounts specified above do not seem unreasonable. This session of the Federation should definitely authorise its officials to undertake this financial foundation. We already have prospects of realisation to a gratifying degree.

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THE HERMAN-JORDAN PLAN.

After the World Conference in 1923 Mr Raphael Herman, of Washington, D.C., offered a twenty-five thousand dollar award for an educational plan calculated to produce world concord. The jury on award, made up of fifteen distinguished men and women, accepted the plan presented by the veteran educator, Dr David Starr Jordan, President-Emeritus of Leland Stanford University. The Jordan plan, instead of hurrying headlong into immature procedure, calls for the appointment of a number of committees to undertake as best they can scientific and educational study for the purpose of marshalling a definite body of reliable facts upon which to found intelligent opinion and from which to develop a definite plan of procedure. This is wise, and no one who is interested in the broad outlook of the profession can well find fault with it. These committees assume at the beginning unprejudiced and open-minded attitudes for the study of the various problems coming under their dominion. These committees may report to the Federation from time to time for definite action and for guidance. If we put together the wisdom of the profession in the several countries, there is no doubt, in my mind, and I trust not in any, as to the value of such a programme. This plan will supplement the work already undertaken and the work which may be developed in the several fields by this Conference held here in Edinburgh, and should be accepted and put into operation as quickly as possible by the Federation. This plan has been printed in agenda form and distributed among the delegates so that all may study it and understand its importance. Such a plan should further world understanding, world friendship and advance the cause of peace.

THE PRESENT PROGRAMME.

As you have observed, the present programme deals with many phases of education affecting all sections of school work, beginning even with the pre-school child and

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continuing through the complete course of education. It attempts to deal only with those principles which may be universally applied and with those programmes, processes and attitudes which may be accepted by all peoples. It involves a programme of universal education through the relief of illiteracy, the development of a programme of character education, the health of the world's children, together with the attempt to find means of utilising the opportunities afforded by the various subjects taught in the curricula of our schools. Out of the discussion should come some definite, cardinal principles upon which we may build more satisfactory results.

THE NEXT MEETING PLACE.

That the World Federation is looked upon as a permanent force in world education is indicated by the number of applications we have for the next meeting. I have in my possession invitations from Berlin, Germany; Toronto, Canada; San Diego, California, United States; and Honolulu in the midst of the Pacific. Tentative invitations from several other important centres are also indicated. It may not be possible for us to determine at this meeting, owing to contingencies, just where the next meeting may take place, but it is assured that we shall have a suitable meeting place backed up by a strong spirit of co-operation on the part of the city and country in which we meet.

MESSAGE TO THE KING.

Since the first biennial meeting of the World Federation of Education Associations is meeting here in Edinburgh, Scotland, the ancient capital of His Majesty the King, and knowing well His Majesty's deep interest in the cause of education and his faith in its virtue, and knowing also His Majesty's desire to promote goodwill and friendship among the nations of the earth, this organization representing, as it does nearly all nationalities should send His Majesty a message of cordial goodwill and respectful homage.

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IN CONCLUSION.

It is the purpose of this great organization to effect a closer unity of organized educational forces throughout the world, to stabilise so far as education can the trend of the future, to provide a sane and courageous leadership in directing the advancement of the human race. It will be its mission to comb out of the world civilisation those virtues which lend themselves to happiness and progress and foster and cultivate them and to make determined war upon those elements which retard or misdirect and which are hang-overs of primitive days. We do not seek to standardise education in the different countries nor to pull down what has been solidly built up. Only those materials, methods and means of more universal application should receive attention. We must keep faith with the self-determination of nations and the various social gifts which have added to the sum total of human advancement.

Education has become a cause. Its purpose is the same in all countries. Truth and the materials of education are universal. Each adult generation is the custodian of the one which follows it. If we would have a thought of the well-being of the future, we must weave the right sort of environmental influences around the children and teach them the virtues the world most needs. Whatever we would have appear in the life of the nation, we must first put into our schools. While we each of us are vitally concerned in the advancement of our own country, we must of necessity be interested in the advancement of all. Just as invention and discovery have brought the world into small compass and developed a community more highly sympathetic, so we must establish and abide by international social, commercial and diplomatic traffic rules. This necessitates an international attitude or mode of thinking which we call the "international mind." The

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peoples of the earth must now live together, and we, the teachers of the world's children, must prepare them for these new relations. This does not mean that the new world citizen must be unmindful of his own country, that his patriotism must be discarded any more than making a man a good neighbour would require a man to forget his own family.

We have come into a day when human interest, human sympathy, human love can know no bounds and no national lines. The radio message leaps all boundaries. It will further a broader language study which will make for goodwill. The great foundations are working for the relief of human distress, disregarding difference of language and of race. They count men and women everywhere human beings and worthy of relief from suffering. International Rotary, Kiwanis, the Red Cross, the Church and other great movements, all indicate a new era and bring new viewpoints and new responsibility. It is our mission to further this. Education must stand at the helm with guiding hand. Education, tempered with wisdom, is the ladder of the ambitious, instrument of the successful, spur to enterprise, dispeller of ignorance, enemy of fear, destroyer of superstition, giver of truth, director of purpose, patron of invention, mother of science, essence of hope, guide of life, moulder of human destiny and the hope of the race.

The greatest problem before the world and the aim most devoutly to be wished is universal and perpetual peace. In order to achieve this, it is not sufficient that nations disarm. This is important, but arms once thrown down may be quickly taken up again. A nation could secretly prepare for war just as nations have done. There is great importance to be attached to mutual disarmament, but peace is of the heart, and until we have developed a sense of justice and the spirit of goodwill, we shall be disappointed now and then. In this, education seems the

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hope of the world. Both business and diplomacy have failed to keep the peace of the world and business is wont to coin the blood of the soldier into gold. The conscription of labour and wealth on an equal footing with fighting men will remove a cause. Disarmament will make war more difficult but justice and friendship will make war impossible.

The World Federation at this convention must rewrite its temporary constitution and make it permanent. It must make provision for a permanent financial foundation of ten million to twenty million dollars and provide temporary means of approximately one hundred thousand dollars per year for a period of five years or until the permanent foundation is laid. There should be a board of trustees in charge of the funds and a board of directors in charge of operations, with a full time staff of officers and assistants. This will give opportunity to promote the programme begun at San Francisco and to carry on the work set in motion here.

M. C. H. WILLIAMS, the Secretary-Treasurer of the Federation, presented the Secretarial Report.

SECRETARIAL REPORT.

The Secretary of the World Federation of Education Associations desires to report that during the past two years—since the adjournment of the World Conference on Education held at San Francisco in July 1923—the World Federation of Education Associations organised at that Conference, has made substantial progress both in the development of its organisation and in the promotion of its fundamental aims.

At the time of the adjournment of the San Francisco Conference only one educational organisation had voted to become a member of the World Federation—namely, the National Education Association of the United States.

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Since the close of that meeting, the following nation-wide educational organisations have joined the World Federation and have paid their membership dues :

The Canadian Teachers' Federation.

The Educational Institute of Scotland.

The National Union of Teachers of England and Wales.

The Japanese Education Association.

The Irish National Teachers' Organisation.

The Chinese National Association for the Advancement of Education.

Two organisations, namely, the National Federation of Education Associations of China and the Bund Entschiedener Schulreformer of Germany have made formal application for membership and have been approved by vote of the Board of Directors taken by mail. The Secretary has not yet had time to receive the membership dues from these organisations, since the vote of approval was given, but notice has been sent to the Officers of those organisations of their approval.

Another organisation, the National Union of Women Teachers of England and Wales has been approved for membership by vote of the Board of Directors, formal admission awaiting the filing of the regular application blank, and the payment of membership dues.

In addition, a large number of organisations and even institutions of learning which are not entitled to membership under our present constitution, which limits membership in most countries to nation-wide organisations, have expressed deep interest in our movement, have applied for membership in the hope that our constitution might be so changed as to admit them, and have in some cases even forwarded their dues in advance. These associations and institutions that have made formal application for membership up to the present time are the following :

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- The New Education Fellowship (International in scope; headquarters, London, England.)
- University of Mexico.
- The American Federation of Teachers, U.S.A.
- The International Kindergarten Union; headquarters, Washington, D.C.
- The Nursery School Association of Great Britain and Ireland.
- The University of Debrecen, Hungary.
- The Theosophical Fraternity in Education in America.
- The Hungarian Pedagogical Society.

In addition to making every effort possible to interest nation-wide organisations in the work of the World Federation, the Secretary, during the last two years, has made an effort to compile reliable information concerning educational organisations and institutions of learning in countries which possess no nation-wide organisation. Largely through the assistance of the Consuls of the United States, in foreign countries, the Secretary has secured the names of the leading local educational organisations and of the colleges in many such countries, together with the names of the officers of such organisations and institutions wherever the U.S. Consuls could supply them. This list has been arranged by countries and is on file in the office of the Secretary ready to be placed at the disposal of any Officer of the World Federation or any Committee desiring to make use of it.

During the last few months the Secretary has directed his main efforts toward assisting the President and other Officers of the World Federation in making preparation for the Conference which is now beginning. In that connection the office of the Secretary has sent out a total of nearly 5,000 individual letters, besides assisting in distributing bulletins and furnishing other information relative to the Conference.

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The Secretary wishes to acknowledge the many helpful suggestions and the splendid co-operation which he has received from the President and from all members of the Board of Directors of the World Federation. Anything that he may have accomplished that has been worth while has been due in very large part to their constant assistance.

The Secretary believes that he should also make mention of the fact that during the last two years the President and authorities of the University of Missouri, with which he happens to be connected, not only have very generously furnished, free of charge, a room in which the work of the World Federation could be carried on, but have in numerous other ways shown their genuine interest in our organisation. Also, the clerks working in the office of the extension division of the University of Missouri have generously given a very considerable amount of their time, outside their regular office hours, to the work of the World Federation, making no charge whatever for their services, their interest in education and especially in the spread of educational advantages to all the world leading them to make this contribution.

In conclusion, the Secretary desires to express his conviction that the work of the World Federation is just beginning. He believes with all his heart in the cause in which we are all interested and he is confident that the World Federation has before it a wonderful future—that the time will come—and that not very far in the future when its influence will be felt for good in every country and nation upon the globe.

The Report was adopted and ordered to be placed on the file.

THE PRESIDENT: I want to call your attention to the consideration of the Herman-Jordan plan. Dr Jordan, who is a veteran in education and of world-wide fame as an educator and scientist, was unable to come to this

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conference although he participated in the San Francisco meeting. Mr Herman is here and you will have the opportunity of meeting him. The plan is free and is put up in an agenda form, and I think you should take time to read it over carefully and be prepared to make a definite expression with regard to its adoption before the conference adjourns.

A DELEGATE: May I raise the inquiry whether that will be the only plan submitted to the conference?

THE PRESIDENT: That will be the only plan of its kind. The organisation has this definite plan. This is merely a plan suggested for us to act upon at the present time. In regard to the amendment of the constitution, what is your pleasure, on the making of it firmer?

Mr MARSHALL, West Virginia: I move that the Chairman appoint a Committee of such numbers as he thinks proper to take the matter under consideration.

The motion was seconded.

THE PRESIDENT: If the mover would withdraw that motion, the Executive Committee have a recommendation that they would like to make first. If it is not satisfactory, we shall take whatever action you think fit.

Mr MARSHALL: I withdraw.

Mr WILLIAMS: At the meeting of the Board of Directors of the World's Federation this morning it was moved and unanimously adopted that a Committee, which should consist of the Board of Directors and the Secretary-Treasurer of the World Federation, together with one representative of each one of the affiliated organisations and two members representing the Scottish National Committee should make up a Committee to consider the revision of the constitution of the organisation, which would include this question of determination of policy.

Mr MARSHALL: Who will select the members from each organisation?

THE PRESIDENT: The organisation itself.

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Mr MARSHALL: I move that this recommendation of the Executive Committee be adopted.

The motion was seconded and unanimously adopted.

The Very Rev. Professor W. P. PATERSON, Dean of the Faculty of Theology in Edinburgh University and Ex-Moderator of the Church of Scotland, then addressed the assembly. He said: Mr Chairman, Ladies and Gentlemen, I feel it a very great privilege to be called upon to say a word which will be partly a word of gratitude for the fine address to which we have listened and which will, if I may anticipate, be a word of welcome to this crowd of delegates representing the round world from China to Peru. I shall not say that I think you made a bad selection when you came to the old capital of Scotland and to the historic City of Edinburgh, because Scotland has had a very remarkable history. When you think of it in this way, there once was a time when Scotland was at the very edge of the known world, and it was a very small country, and it was a very poor country and it was a very illiterate country. What made the difference? It was the discovery of America, and with the discovery of America it becomes the centre of the learned land masses of the Globe. (Laughter.) Of course, we also discovered that we had great resources of coal and iron as well as that there was a new world, and the result of this combination of circumstances was that what would have been a very small and obscure country became one of the famous countries in proportion to its size and population the world over. (Applause.) You know, it is a very remarkable thing. It is very small. In that country on the other side they take about a week to get from the West Coast to the East. Here you can travel from the East Coast to the West in a forenoon, do business, and go back to lunch. Then, there are the rivers in America, but are their rivers, even the very big ones, as important as the Forth and Clyde and the Tay? I venture to say No.

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There is a number of things that Scotland has produced that are quite unique. I believe we invented the game of golf and it went round the world. We invented a game called curling, and it went round the world. We invented a potion called Scotch Whisky, and it went round the world. (Laughter) Then, we have the best secondary schools, the largest number of first rate secondary schools of any city in the world, and we have a great belief in education. I believe there is no country in the world that has a group of secondary schools like Edinburgh, and that is where we are superior to America. There are some Universities there that are about as good—(laughter)—but they have not a secondary school. I have had a great many American students, and I would say in all seriousness that you should put in every one of your cities a secondary school as good as George Watson's or the Academy. The University is rather important. I have heard a very distinguished American savant say that he always took off his hat to the University of Edinburgh. He said it did two of the biggest things in medicine in the nineteenth century. First, it invented chloroform, which made operations painless, and then it had Lister, who dealt with the bacillus and made the operation free from danger. So I think that university has done a good deal in the cause of humanity.

There is another thing I should say. I am a minister and you say, "Why talk about education?" Why, the Church to which I belong had an ideal of education which was on the highest lines! Wherever the Presbyterian Church of Scotland went, colleges and secondary schools sprang up in its train. I believe that the debt that is owed to the Church of John Knox by America as well as by the Colonies in this matter of education is a debt that it is almost impossible to overestimate, because this town, in addition to the other things I have

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mentioned, is the headquarters of that type of theology called Presbyterianism.

I am impressed by the range of the constitution of this organisation. I am impressed by the omissions. I am impressed by the wisdom of the limitations, although, mind you, I could argue about these limitations and criticise them. For instance, you are not to talk religion and you are not to talk politics, and one of the things that you are profoundly interested in is the formation of character. Now, I say to myself, what was it that used to make character in the past, sometimes for good and sometimes for evil? One of the most potent forces in moulding character is religion. Religion always produced a very definite type of character, and in Scotland it produced a very virile type of character. What is going to produce it in the future? Ask the Socialist? He will say it is a total transformation of the conditions under which children grow up and men live their lives, and if you have a different type of character you have got to have a revolution. Said a critic to me, "It looks as if you were to have a conference on military affairs and you were not to discuss the cavalry arm and you were not to touch on the question of explosives." I said to him, "There is a great deal in it"; but then, as the President wisely said, you must recognise the divisions of opinion that prevail on this question. You are not going to make a pandemonium of these questions, but you must not rule the questions out. The President fully realises that there are many forces in the world making for the production of a noble type of character, making for truth and righteousness, and if they are not discussed here you must not go away saying religion has nothing to do with it and politics have nothing to do with it. You American people have many defects, but you are a people that has got a conscience. I say it in all honesty—I do not believe there are any people that has brought more of a con-

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science into International relations than the American people. (Applause.) The only pity is that in connection with the League of Nations, you threw over the work of your great President. But as I say, Sir, we thank you for the lead you have given. This is a great movement. It will go on prospering when those of us who are here are no more. I believe your are a man who has lit a fire that will go on burning. You have launched a movement that will produce beneficent results to the end of time. (Applause.)

Dr NITOBE, Secretary of the Committee on International Intellectual Co-operation, League of Nations, Geneva: I wish to thank you in the name of the Secretariat of the League of Nations as well as in the name of the International Committee on Intellectual Co-operation, which is one of the expert organisations connected with the League of Nations, for the kind invitation which you have extended to us. It is not necessary for me to add anything to what the President has already said this afternoon in regard to the present age as being a co-operative age. I am afraid that the League of Nations is not always rightly understood everywhere. In one word, it is the greatest organisation for International co-operation. In the preamble of the Covenant of the League it is clearly stated that the object of the League is the promotion of co-operation and the achievement of peace and security. I have myself been connected for now nearly six years with the League of Nations. I was appointed to the Secretariat six months before the League was formally established; in other words, I am, as far as the League of Nations is concerned, a pre-historic man. (Laughter.) I may say that when I came here this afternoon I did not expect to be called upon to speak, because, like a primitive man, I thought I came here to use my ears and my eyes but not my mouth; but being called upon to say a few words, I will just

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say this, that not only is this age a co-operative age but the next age will be still more an age of co-operation.

Just think that in the decade between 1840 and 1849 there were held only nine International Congresses of all sorts. In the next decade, namely, from 1850 to 1859 there were held twenty International Congresses; that is, two in a year. In the following decade the number of International Congresses rose to 174, and in the next decade it rose to over 350, and in the next it rose to about twice as much, and in the following still twice as much, so that in the years 1900 to 1909 there were held over 1120 International Congresses of all sorts. Of course, during the following decade there could not be held so many on account of—well, you know why. Now, in the decade in which we are living, from 1920 to 1929, I do not know how many there will be, but this much is certain. We have statistics in the three years 1920 to 1923, and there were held no less than 1110. So that at this rate, before the decade is ended we may perhaps have 3000 International Congresses—namely, 3000 gatherings like this—smaller than this and larger than this—every year. That requires no argument. The proof is here. Now, I am pleased to see that along with the many International Congresses held and to be held there is this most important one, namely, on education. I was pleased to find only a few days ago, while amusing myself with the Talmud, in one place the saying of a wise Rabbi: "Jerusalem was destroyed because the education of children was neglected." That is a remarkable saying and I thought to myself—a new Jerusalem will certainly rise if we attend to the proper education of youth. (Applause.) If there are any here who are interested in the history or the activities of the League of Nations, I and my colleagues are at your disposal. (Applause.)

Mr SAINSBURY: I have a telegram signed on behalf

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of Lord Burnham and from the Right Honourable A. L. Fisher, Ex-President of the Board of Education, which runs as follows : "To Dr Thomas, President, World Education Conference, Assembly Hall, Edinburgh. The President and Principal of the City of London Vacation Course on Education on behalf of the members of this Course send cordial greetings to the Educationists now assembled in Edinburgh for the World Conference on Education. May the schools become ever stronger as agencies making for the peace of the world and for humanity."

THE PRESIDENT: We have another message from the German organisation.

" Manhood's Union of German Teachers greet the World Conference of Education Associations and invite it to Germany for 1927." (Applause.)

The Assembly then adjourned until the evening.

WELCOME MEETING.

Monday, 20th July.

A MEETING OF WELCOME to the Delegates was held in the Usher Hall on Monday evening, 20th July, 1925. The Chair was occupied by Sir John Gilmour, D.S.O., M.P., Secretary for Scotland. There was a gathering of over 2000 people.

ADDRESSES OF WELCOME.

THE CHAIRMAN: My Lords, Ladies and Gentlemen, my first duty is to read to you a copy of a telegram sent from the World Federation of Education Associations to His Majesty the King :—

“ May it please your Majesty, this first biennial Conference of the World Federation of Education Associations assembled here in your Majesty’s ancient capital of Scotland, and representing upwards of forty-six nations and all of your Majesty’s Dominions and Colonies, proffers to your Majesty its sincere homage, and, knowing your Majesty’s profound interest in and heartfelt desire for the promotion and maintenance of goodwill amongst the nations of the world, would respectfully solicit a message of welcome to the Delegates attending this Conference. Signed on behalf of the Conference, Augustus O. Thomas, President of the Federation; George C. Pringle, Acting Conference Secretary.”

My Lords, Ladies and Gentlemen, I have it in command from His Majesty to convey to you the following message :—

“ Please assure the members of the World Federation of Education Associations, assembled in Edinburgh, of my hearty welcome to this country, at the same time express-

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ing my thanks to them for their kind message of greeting and goodwill. I follow with interest and sympathy the great work of the Federation in fostering through the medium of education all that may conduce towards the peace and happiness of the nations of the world. George R.I." (Applause.)

My Lords, Ladies and Gentlemen, it is a very real pleasure for me to be here this evening and, as His Majesty's Secretary for Scotland and Vice-President of the Committee of Council on Education in Scotland, to offer a very hearty welcome to the Delegates to the first Biennial Conference of the World Federation of Education Associations. The President of the Federation and other speakers will explain more fully the constitution and aims of the Federation. But I may say generally that its avowed objects are to secure international co-operation in educational enterprises; to foster the spread of information concerning education in all its forms among nations and peoples; and, last but not least, to cultivate international goodwill and understanding and so to promote the interests of peace throughout the whole world. I will not weary you with statistics as to the number of Delegates drawn from each of the many countries that are represented. It must suffice to say that the total of fifteen hundred odd includes visitors from every continent and from practically every country which can make any claim to be civilised.

We are gratified that you should have selected as the seat of your deliberations a country so remote and—in a geographical sense—so eccentric as Scotland is. (Laughter.) But we cannot admit that we are surprised. (Hear, hear.) We are modest, of course—(laughter)—but not so modest as to disclaim the reputation which the world has given us, or is said to have given us, of being a most serious rival to Boston in its claim to be the hub of the universe. (Applause.) We pride ourselves, in particular,

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on our ancient system of education, on the close connection we established and maintained for many centuries with the great cities of learning in Europe, on our intimate association at this day with educational advances in every part of the world. If we have not yet reached the stage at which we should be safe in authorising every minister of religion to confer the degree of M.A. at baptism, we have, I think, in proportion to our population a larger number of pupils in our secondary schools and of students in our universities than any other country in the world—(applause)—and, although these pupils and students are not all equal in ability and application, the general standard of attainment is undoubtedly relatively high.

Some of you will no doubt feel that, in this particular department or in that, there is little that you could learn from us and a good deal that we could learn from you. Well, I am sure that you will find Scottish educationists very willing to absorb the lesson. It is alleged that the prayer most commonly on the lips of a Scotsman is: "Lord, give us a good conceit of ourselves." Perhaps the prayer is hardly necessary. (Laughter.) We have a good conceit of ourselves. But it would be a mistake to regard this conceit as vanity. It is merely just appreciation of our natural advantages. (Laughter.) It does not—and indeed it must not—blind us to the good qualities of others, which we are always ready to study, to strive to understand, to emulate and to adapt to our own conditions. In education, while it would be invidious to specialise, we frankly admit our indebtedness to foreign countries in recent educational developments—from the Sloyd of Scandinavia to the ju-jitsu of Japan, from Dalton to Montessori, from the language reformers on the Continent to the Healys and Fernalds of America. We all owe them a debt. We are eager to learn more, and we hope in these crowded days to learn more, not from books but from having personal touch with those who write

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them, not only from formal discussion, but from the thousand and one opportunities for friendly interchange of ideas, which we are offered by the long, varied, and interesting programme which your directors have so skilfully devised.

Without being myself, as perhaps you may have realised, a professional educationist, I will hazard the opinion that everywhere the most marked of recent changes in education at every stage have been the broadening of the general curriculum and the increased importance attached to social training. The curriculum is less purely academic and makes, I think, a wider appeal to the range of human interests. In every type of school and college more stress is laid on what our American friends would call community life. Assembly Halls, debating societies, common rooms, music societies, ramblers' clubs, photographic clubs, sports clubs of all kinds are some of the many manifestations of the new spirit. And outside of the school organisations, but closely connected with it, there are Boy Scouts, Girl Guides, Boys Brigades or similar youthful units. The whole effect is to make the training of our young people less individualistic, better adapted to the great art of living which we are all called upon to practise.

I regard this Great Conference as a manifestation of a still wider development of this spirit, which is beginning to make its appearance. We hear more and more every day of schemes for the international exchange of teachers. Our scholars are exchanging letters and even visits with the children of other countries. Schools are exchanging flags with schools in distant lands. All these things are bound to work together for good, provided always that the result is not marred by artificial or overzealous attempts to create a friendly atmosphere. Let the sense of friendship grow quite naturally. Avoid all crude attempts at a narrow propaganda, all unscientific

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endeavour to bias deliberately the teaching of the subjects of the school curriculum. No denunciations of the horrors of War, no exhortations to seek peace and ensue it, no theoretical disquisitions as to the blessings of arbitration will bring us much nearer "the Parliament of man, the Federation of the World," unless the foundation of a right understanding has been well and truly laid. And once that has been done, they will be needless.

The vast improvement in the means of communication between countries is another great help. It is a truism to say that the world is growing smaller every day. In point of fact, we Scots have never been over-impressed by its size. We have not a very large, nor indeed a very rich country. But we got over that long ago. There are other countries which are rich. We know them, and we visit them. (Laughter). Some people will have it that we annex them. At all events, the Scot abroad is an established institution. One of his characteristic features is that he is always and everywhere at home. Like Odysseus of old, we make it our business to "visit the cities of many men and learn their ways," or teach them ours. We strive to make up for the limits of our country by the range of our travels. That, if I am not mistaken, is why you are here to-day. Two years ago a small but very enthusiastic band of Scots crossed the Atlantic to be present at the inauguration of the World Federation of Education Associations. They brought back to us glowing reports of what they had seen and heard, and the leaders in education were so deeply impressed with the aims of the Federation and the enthusiasm with which these were pursued that it was decided to propose that the present Conference should be held in Scotland. The invitation was accepted. The meeting was arranged. The preliminaries were carried through with the aid of everybody in Scotland interested in this magnificent assembly of experts from every quarter of the globe. (Applause).

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We are proud indeed to have you all here in our ancient and beautiful capital, the Modern Athens. We hope you will have ample opportunity of seeing many of its monuments and its institutions. From the papers and debates you will, I am sure, carry away much that is bound to be an aid and an inspiration to you in your noble calling. As for ourselves, what you leave behind in Scotland will surely be the seed of fruitful advance in our national system of education. I think I may say with confidence that never in the history of the world was there a deeper and more practical interest in the problems of education, more practical, I call it, for we are learning more and more that the value of education in school and college must be measured by the fruit it bears in life, in character, and in public service to the State. (Applause.) Never was there a firmer conviction of the truth of the old Latin saw, *Vitae non scholae discimus*,—"We learn for life and not for school." I bid you all welcome with all the cordiality at my command. I trust that your meetings will be crowned with success, and I most earnestly hope that when you return to your homes—some of them very distant homes—you will one and all feel that your journey to this little country has not been in vain, and that our French friends' phrase *L'Hospitalité Ecossaise* is not a mere sentimental memory of the "Auld Alliance," but a synonym for that truest of all forms of kindness, which springs from human sympathy, a union of hearts and a community of ideals. (Applause). This is Scotland, and I make no apology for quoting the familiar words of one of the great poets of humanity:—

"Then let us pray that come it may,
As come it will for a' that,
That Sense and Worth, o'er a' the earth
Shall bear the gree, an' a' that.

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For a' that, an' a' that,
It's coming yet for a' that,
That man to man, the warld o'er,
Shall brithers be for a' that."

(Applause). I have now the great pleasure of calling upon the Lord Provost to address you.

The Right Hon. Sir WILLIAM L. SLEIGH, Lord Provost of the City of Edinburgh: Mr Chairman, my Lords, Ladies and Gentlemen, on behalf of the Corporation and Citizens, I desire to extend to this great assembly a most cordial welcome to the City of Edinburgh. We recognise that the meeting of this Federation of the Education Associations of the World in our historic capital is not merely a compliment to the City, which we appreciate very sincerely, it is an occasion with great possibilities. We realise that the Federation represents in a special degree all those forces which are working towards a common ideal—that of universal education. The Federation can do much in this way to promote international friendliness, goodwill, and understanding. We trust you will overcome those jealousies and differences which, unfortunately, prevent the attainment of that ideal which Sir John has referred to, when the nations of the world "in unity shall dwell."

I understand that this Congress is the first of its kind held by the Federation, and that there are present to-night representatives from the United States, Canada, China, Japan, India and most of the European countries. May I say to every one that we are proud indeed to have you with us, and I esteem it a great honour and a great privilege to have this opportunity of conveying to you a message of friendly greeting and goodwill from the citizens of our Scottish capital. (Applause).

As I previously stated, we regard it as a high compliment that the first meeting of the Federation should be held in Edinburgh. Perhaps it is hardly necessary

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for me to point out that those responsible for selecting our City could not have chosen a more appropriate place for the Congress. (Applause). It is sometimes said that Edinburgh's face is her fortune. No one disputes that she is well-favoured in that respect, but I venture to say that the world-wide reputation which Edinburgh enjoys does not rest entirely on her beauty, or on the stirring incidents of her glorious history, or the glamour of her romantic traditions, but much is due to the fame of her scholastic institutions and the excellence of the instruction and training given in medicine, surgery, science, and art. (Applause). It is, therefore, quite appropriate that this Congress should be held here. I am sure you will all agree by the time the meetings are over that our City provides a wonderful setting for the meeting of this influential and distinguished Federation. I trust you will all have a most interesting and instructive visit. I know that the citizens will do their best to render your stay an enjoyable one. My Lords, Ladies and Gentlemen, I welcome you all to the City of Edinburgh and assure you that everything will be done for your convenience and comfort during your residence here. (Applause).

THE CHAIRMAN: I have now to call upon Sir Alfred Ewing, the Principal of the University of Edinburgh. (Applause).

Sir J. ALFRED EWING, Principal of the University of Edinburgh: Mr Chairman, My Lords, Ladies and Gentlemen, in greeting an assembly such as this, it is natural to tell them that, when they come to Edinburgh, they have come to the Mecca of their subject. (Laughter). A few weeks ago I welcomed an incursion of some hundreds of American doctors to Edinburgh as the Mecca of Medicine. Their own leader was going to say the same thing; but fortunately I got it in first. (Laughter.) To you, with equal truth, I may call Edinburgh the

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Mecca of Education. I am told that pilgrims to the real Mecca suffer all manner of discomfort in transport and accommodation, but treat it lightly because they are buoyed up by two sentiments, first their devotion to an ideal, and second their enjoyment of the adventure of travel. If you require them, you have the same two consolations. You are idealists in a great and worthy cause; and you have come to a city where it is easy to escape from the *ennui* of the Conference room into surroundings that are unique in their beauty, rich in their historical interest, potent in the stimulus of their romance.

It is inspiring to address a concourse of men and women, drawn together by a common enthusiasm, experts in the same noble profession. It is inspiring also to think that behind the visible audience there is another, not in the same sense expert, but composed of persons to whom the subject has just as real an interest as it has to ourselves—a wide-spread audience of fathers, mothers, sons, daughters, to whom education is part of the daily problem of life. There is no time to say more than a few words to you and to them. What little I can say is said from the standpoint of one who has reached the Psalmist's superannuation limit after giving the best part of his life's work to the business of educating others, and incidentally himself.

My own experience has been in what is called the higher education, a type of education which cannot and should not be general. To try making it so would be futile. It would also be injurious to the interests of the community as well as to the interests of the individual. The higher education ought, at every stage, to be selective, to be continued by the few who are fit to receive it with profit. What should by all means be made general in this connection is opportunity. (Applause). We must see to it that no person really worthy of the privilege shall miss his chance of the highest education. (Applause). One of the functions of the primary and

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secondary schools is to discover the highly capable few and send them on to the Universities, whose doors must be kept open for them. No limit should be set to the advance of any youth with exceptional mental gifts. To provide such persons with the means of exercising their faculty for learning and research is a duty which the nation owes to them and to itself. They are a national asset which it would be folly to neglect; and they are all the more valuable because they are uncommon. This is obvious of the greatest, the Shakespeares, the Newtons, the Faradays, the Kelvins. It is less obvious but hardly less true of many more whose natural talents are exceptional though they fall short of genius. It is on such potentialities that we should concentrate our effort in this matter. Attempts to make intellectual mediocrity keep pace with distinction fail dismally and expensively; they keep back those whom we should help to forge ahead, and they are a disservice to those who should be left behind. Thanks to bursaries and grants, opportunity for the fit is now offered widely; it may require further expansion. But it should be associated with more careful sifting. (Hear, hear.) One finds, even as things are, that some persons are brought into the profession who have no adequate intellectual right to be there. The system as it stands is not free from inefficiency and waste.

My other word is this. Have faith in education, but do not expect too much from it. Those who look to it to make a new heaven and a new earth will be disappointed. It cannot be trusted even to make the present world safe for democracy, or democracy safe for the world. (Laughter.) It offers no guarantee of right thinking. Not infrequently the educated man is wrong, and the instinct of the crowd knows him to be wrong. "High-brow," "Intellectual"—these are not names expressive of unquestioning faith in accepted

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leaders. They imply a criticism which is sometimes well deserved.

It is not for us, who believe in education, to overpraise it. I have ventured to sound a warning note. I have suggested limitations, trusting that you will not misunderstand me. For to you and to me, and to all who have seriously considered what education is, and know what it can do, it remains a thing worthy of our love and our endeavour, a force of incalculable possibility for the betterment of mankind. (Applause.)

THE CHAIRMAN: I have now to call upon the Right Hon. William Adamson. (Applause).

The Right Hon. WILLIAM ADAMSON, P.C., M.P., ex-Secretary for Scotland: I add my word of welcome to the delegates assembled here from all lands, and like a true Scot I trust that they have brought with them and will leave in Scotland much that will enrich us educationally and at the same time leave themselves no poorer. In our country we have a proverb, "Giff-Gaff maks guid freends." That is to say, those who are given to free exchange in the way of friendly borrowing and lending are the best of friends and neighbours. Whether you come merely as appropriators or more generously disposed importers of ideas, you are equally welcome. In this connection there is one consolation left to the poor Free trader, and it is that no nation can readily impose a tariff on education and knowledge. (Applause). You may refuse our coal, and we in turn, in order to protect our industries, may tax automobiles and silk, but scientific learning and the benefits accruing from discoveries in the field of applied knowledge remain free to all as the winds and waves of the Atlantic.

As you have already been told—and you will often hear before you finish in Edinburgh—we in Scotland lay great stress upon education. Sir Alfred Ewing in bidding you welcome here to-night did so as a repre-

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sentative of the University here in our Scottish capital. I, in turn, speak for those—and their name is legion—to whom the privilege of leisurely study within the seclusion of a University was never possible—the plain every-day folk of whom it may be said:—

“Knowledge to their eyes her ample page,
Rich with the spoils of time, did ne'er unroll.”

Indeed, the only time I was within those precincts of learning myself was when, as Secretary for Scotland, I was kidnapped by the students and held to ransom for a thousand merks Scots. (Laughter). On that occasion the worthy Principal did his best to make my enforced stay as pleasant as possible. (Laughter.) As I sometimes tell my classically trained Parliamentary colleagues, while they were studying at the College I was working at the “Coal Edge.” (Laughter).

Let me say, Mr Chairman, that I am one of those who earnestly believe that the international promotion of education will be one of the greatest channels for extending peaceful sentiments and goodwill among the nations of the earth. To share ideas in common is one of the best means of achieving those ideals which make for human progress. I rejoice to think that our conception of education is coming more to be regarded as a matter of social training for future citizenship than the merely intellectual activity of minds that are being exercised in mental gymnastics. The increased attention paid to training for social service in the schools and colleges of all lands augurs well for the future of society and the peace of the world at large. And such training, let me urge upon you, does not consist merely in the displaying of valiant phrases and texts on the walls, such as “Workers of the World Unite,” but the more vitalising process of training and moulding character in action, and, above all, the living out of those principles of human brotherhood and fraternity that we hear men talk so much of to-day. (Applause).

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Education in Scotland has ever had a democratic vision and tendency through the centuries. Indeed, when our great Public Education Act of 1872 was introduced, it was done for the purpose of giving to the children of Scotland the opportunity of educational development to the fullest extent. That has not been entirely fulfilled as yet. There is still work to be done by educationists in Scotland before it will be possible for every child, no matter what its origin may be, to have the fullest opportunity for the attainment of knowledge and of expanding his intellectual capabilities. In all our aspirations towards the democratic state, we dare not lose sight of the fundamental truth that the implications of real democracy as "Government of the people by the people" can only be ultimately worked out through the gradual process of education and the more general diffusion of knowledge among the people.

We most heartily welcome you here to-day, representatives of so many of the peoples of countries beyond the seas. It may appear ungracious to make distinctions, but may I in a single word, and simply because of the problems of the hour, express my gratification at the presence of distinguished delegates from China and Japan and India. (Applause.) Great and manifold are the problems of the Eastern World, calling for supreme wisdom and sympathetic understanding. May I say that nothing is so likely to draw us closer in the bonds of unity than an extension of education as our common rightful heritage for every one of the peoples of the world. We bid you welcome not only to the Scottish capital but to Scotland. May your stay be pleasant and profitable. May the recollections of this land of ours—small it may be among the nations, but great in its ideals and strivings—remain with you as a happy memory in your pilgrimage in quest not only of educational principles but of the historic, the romantic and the beautiful. Here you will find abundant material for these.

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"There by the crag and the moor she stands,
This mother of half the world's great men."

We bid you welcome here to-night. (Applause.)

THE CHAIRMAN: I now call upon Sir Donald Macalister, Principal of the University of Glasgow.

Sir DONALD MACALISTER, Principal of the University of Glasgow: Mr Chairman, Ladies and Gentlemen, "Brevity and conciseness are all important." So reads the seventh and last of your official "Hints to Speakers." That hint I am going to take, the more readily as four moderately brief and concise speakers have preceded me and said very happily what I should have tried to say, although I fear less happily, if I had preceded them. To use a Scottish law term I "homologate" all the expressions of cordial welcome to Edinburgh which they have offered to the World Federation, so far of course, and so far only, as these expressions have commended themselves to the collective intelligence of the Federation. (Laughter). My predecessors from Mecca (Laughter) seem to have overlooked the fact that Islam—that is the land of the faithful believer—is wider than Mecca. They have rightly spoken of and for Scotland as represented by Edinburgh, its comparatively modern capital (Laughter) with its comparatively modern University. (Laughter). This land of ours, however, has had older capitals, such as Scone and Perth and Dunfermline, and has older Universities (laughter) such as St Andrews, Glasgow and Aberdeen. (Applause). And there is indeed an older Scotland than the Saxon Lothians within which this beautiful city of Edinburgh is placed. There is that Celtic Scotland in the Highlands and Islands of the West and North, whence from Iona Christian civilisation and education and learning came to Great Britain before St Augustine reached the shores of Kent. Now by chance I am associated with these ancient Scottish capitals and these religious foundations and these romantic regions

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by close personal bonds, and I therefore deem myself privileged and indeed entitled to supplement the greetings you have received on behalf of Edinburgh, by voicing the welcome, and the multitudinous welcome, the *cíad mile fáilte* of older Scotland and its older universities outside the present capital. And in particular, I am charged to present to you, to this first meeting in Europe of the World Federation as an organisation which is explicitly designed "To represent comprehensively the forces working for universal education, and so to promote international understanding, goodwill, co-operation and justice," the fraternal salutations and the hearty "God-speed" of the University of Glasgow. (Applause.) My Lord Provost, its Papal Bull of foundation antedates the Royal Charter conferring metropolitan pre-eminence on the City of Edinburgh. It ante-dates even the birth-year of Christopher Columbus. (Laughter). And yet its aspirations so to teach and so to learn as to further peace and goodwill among nations are as youthfully eager as those of the youngest unit in this great international convocation of teachers. But apart from Scotland, and apart from Glasgow (laughter) it happens that, without, I think, going beyond my proper function, I can speak also for a wider academic constituency. As Chairman of the Annual University Conference of these Islands, and of the Standing Committee of Vice-Chancellors and Principals, I add in the name of the Universities and University Colleges of England, Wales, and Ireland North and South, the assurance of their sympathy with the purpose and aims of this Conference and their devout desire that these may issue in peace the world over. (Applause).

Miss M. TWEEDIE, President of the Educational Institute of Scotland: Mr Chairman, My Lords, Ladies and Gentlemen, I am particularly glad and grateful that I do stand to represent Edinburgh after the speech of my predecessor. I feel still more keenly the great

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privilege that is mine to speak for the teachers of Scotland from the Mull of Galloway to John o' Groats. You have heard the greetings of the great and old Universities of Scotland. We are to some extent the younger brother, or I had better say the younger sister, but in our youth and modesty we offer no less hearty greetings than these institutions, great in their hoary antiquity. The motto of the teachers which it has been my privilege to wear in a special sense last year is : " Instruction develops innate worth," a free translation of the words of our youthful old friend Horace. Perhaps we in Scotland have taken too exclusively to follow after learning only in our work in the schools. If we have felt that Godliness and good learning were the great things to follow in life, I should like you to believe that it is not as an exclusive thing that we have followed these good aims. It is rather as a basis of a great structure, and that it is so I think has been proved by the fact that we, modest as we are, were the first to realise the great and invigorating idea that was given birth to two years ago by our American cousins. We sent our delegates to America and when they came back, full of good news, we fostered the idea from the start, and not to me—I disclaim the personal factor here in every sense—but to our body is due at least the merit of having sent this good idea, of having offered it to other people who saw it at once no less clearly. (Applause). In our country now at least we may say that education at long last stands above politics, and if some of you realise the inwardness of this platform here you will see that the lion is indeed lying down with the lamb (laughter) and you will realise how we rejoice to feel that no political party can, or may I say dare, undertake the responsibility of standing aside from the great national needs of education. (Applause.) But there is a greater meaning than that in this gathering to-night. If education stands above politics, you are proving that it stands above national boundaries.

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(Applause). We can hope—we must hope—that it will go on standing above national boundaries until it has become one platform at least on which the nations of the world agree. I am going to follow rule seven, I think the Principal of the University of Glasgow said, which recommends us to be brief and concise. I am going to welcome you in the name of the teachers of Scotland. When I say the teachers of Scotland, it is no small or mean body. Twenty years ago it was a common thing to say that teachers were a race apart. They are not a race apart. They are a living part of the corporate body of the organism of our life, and they feel themselves to be what we all feel ourselves to be—missionaries in the great cause of civilisation. (Applause).

I have one word more. Perhaps you will excuse it. It is almost a personal one. I rejoice in the hazard—for it is a hazard—that has put one woman at least amongst those who are to welcome you here to-night. (Applause.) I would not have an international gathering like this going away with the jibe in their hearts that once came from the lips of an English friend of mine to the effect that Scotland is a man-ridden country, for I can assure you that the women of Scotland have worked shoulder to shoulder with the men in the interests of education. (Applause). We stand for co-education in the schools in a way that is at least second to no other nation. In a word, in the name of the women of Scotland, but more particularly in the name of the Educational Institute of Scotland, of which I have the honour to be President, I bid you welcome to-night. (Applause).

Councillor P. H. ALLAN, Chairman of the Edinburgh Education Authority: Just in a word or two might I be allowed on behalf of the Edinburgh Education Authority to give you a very warm welcome to our city. We in the Education Authority were delighted when we heard that you were making Edinburgh your Conference

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place, perhaps for two reasons. One reason was that we have so many enquiries from all parts of the world as to our system of education in Scotland, and almost naturally they came to Edinburgh instead of to the other end of the country, and we have sent so many of our books to your various countries that we are very glad of having an opportunity of meeting you face to face. And, secondly, perhaps even from a selfish point of view, we who have charge of the upbringing of the boys and girls of Edinburgh do realise this, that your coming to our capital is bound to give a great stimulus to education in Scotland and in Edinburgh, and for that reason we welcome you here with all our hearts. You perhaps may not learn very much from us. We hope there is something we can teach you, but we feel perfectly sure that we shall get great good from your visit here that will help us in the years to come, and for that reason on behalf of my Authority I give you a very warm welcome to the city of Edinburgh. (Applause).

Mr GEORGE DUNCAN, Chairman of the Association of Education Authorities : On behalf of the Association of Education Authorities in Scotland I should like to add just one note to the chorus of welcomes which have been already given to this great conference. I believe, Sir, that the great majority of the delegates present are engaged in the actual work of teaching; and speaking, as I do, on behalf of those who are engaged in the local administration of education in Scotland, I should like to express and to emphasise the idea that they and the members of the teaching profession should be regarded, and should regard themselves, as fellow workers in a common cause. Education administrators have everything to learn from the actual teacher, and I firmly believe that it is only by harmony and by active co-operation between the teachers and the administrators that education can make real progress in our land. Speaking in this spirit, I heartily welcome this Conference. We

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shall learn much from it, and I am sure that it will be productive of great good and of greatly enhanced interest in the cause of education, not merely in Scotland but all over the world. (Applause.)

THE CHAIRMAN: Ladies and Gentlemen, I have now to call upon Dr Thomas, the President of the Federation.

RESPONSES.

Dr AUGUSTUS O. THOMAS, President of the Federation: I am somewhat abashed at this particular time to know just how to respond to the very generous welcome which has been graciously extended to us. I have been thinking that I should have no chance at all after these very delightful and very brilliant addresses of welcome, for I thought you were so completely united on your great town that I surely could not represent my country quite so fully, until the Principal of the University of Glasgow appeared on the programme, and then I took heart of grace. (Laughter). In our own country of America we also have rival cities. Two of these are Minneapolis and St Paul. At one time there was a Swedish man who came over and settled in Minneapolis. He got on to the Board of Education and he moved at once that the Bible be taken out of the schools because it spoke not at all of Minneapolis and mentioned St Paul so many times. (Laughter and applause.) I am glad, therefore to see that with all your wonderful and delightful qualities you are still human even in Scotland. This is seriously the Mecca to-day of Education, with all deference to the splendid city of Glasgow. This is the city upon which the eyes of the world educationally are focussed to-day. I have had my impressions of Scotland enhanced, although I have always had a very high regard for the people of this country, and I have always wanted to visit Edinburgh. It chanced once upon a time, as the stories go, that I studied under a gentleman who was

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educated in Edinburgh. I took some of my work, in sociology and education, under Dr J. Martin Littlejohn, a Minister and a Professor in the city and a very wonderful man. I have his name attached to the diploma which I have in my home. I remember what a very delightful character he was, and I often said : "If all the people of Scotland are like him, the country must be all right." I can remember when I took the Diploma from his hand and thanked him, as the grateful student will, I said : "Dr Martin, it seems to me that all I know I owe to you," for he had opened up the new vision to me of education, and very sympathetically he said, "Oh, my good friend, please don't mention such a trifle" (Laughter).

I am very sure that while we paid very little duty in coming into Scotland, if we take our educational baggage with us we must pay a very large duty when we go back, for I am sure we shall have all our suitcases and bags full of the very fine spirit which we find here. (Laughter and applause). But more seriously—and I may speak not alone for my own country, but I may speak for the nations who are here, as an official in the organisation which I represent—we accept your gracious hospitality in the spirit in which it is given. We have come amongst you to understand you and to love you. We shall carry home with us memories that we shall treasure all the rest of our days; and, Mr Chairman, be sure the children of the world hereafter will know more of Scotland than they ever did before—(applause)—for every single teacher who is here will tell all their pupils about the wonderful land of our visit and the wonderful people we have met.

If it were possible for us to take a gathering of this kind into every country of the world, how soon the children in the schools of the world would know better

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the people and the children of other lands. (Applause). I think if I lived here I should think this was the mainland and these other places like Europe and Asia and Africa and America were all overgrown islands, and I admire that sort of patriotism.

I love a man who loves his country. (Applause). I love the citizen who feels he lives in the greatest country in the world and has the most beautiful flag and has the greatest opportunities for humanity. That is the kind of patriotism and spirit that education ought to build up. That is the very mission of education. I love those who believe in their country and who believe in themselves. We would not want to come to Scotland if you did not believe in yourselves, if you did not feel that your country possessed virtues that were worth while and worth emulating.

In my own country we have our struggle for education. We have about 28 millions of children to educate. We have a staff of about 750,000 teachers, leading 26 or 27 million of children. We believe, like you, in education. We seek to give everyone who wants an education a chance to receive it. Our country believes in other nations and believes in helping them. We think sometimes that we are misunderstood. We think sometimes other nations think we are rich. I want to tell you as a fact that we think less of wages than we do of the human soul, than we do of music and of art and of education, less of the material blessings which have been given to us than we do of the finer things of life. Our nation wants to be right, and if we sometimes seem to you to be wrong, or if we sometimes hold ourselves aloof, I think it is safe for you to trust the ultimate judgment of the United States as being sincere and wanting to be right. (Applause).

Mr Chairman, the Delegates to this great Conference

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gladly accept the hospitality which has been extended to them, the open door, and the open heart to the homes and to the people of this great land, this Scotland and England, and Ireland and Wales. We are glad to be amongst you and we shall take away from here a higher conception of your aims and ideals and a greater love for you all. (Applause).

Dr P. Kuo, President of the South Eastern University of Nanking: Honourable Chairman, Ladies and Gentlemen: Some years ago when I was a student in America I heard a public speaker telling a little story. and the story was this, that an American laughs before a joke is told, a Scotsman laughs the day following the joke (laughter) and a Chinese never laughs. (Laughter). I knew at the time that what was said about the Chinese was not true. I was not sure whether what was said about the Scotsman was true or not (laughter) but after coming to Scotland, and especially after listening to the addresses of this evening, I know for sure that what was said about the Scotsman was also not true. (Applause.)

Now, to be serious, it was almost a year ago when we learned the good news that upon the invitation of the Educational Institute of Scotland, seconded by the Teachers' Union of England and Wales and by the Teachers' Association of Ireland, the World Federation of Education Associations had decided to hold this first biennial meeting in this historic and charming city of Edinburgh. To-day this proposed Conference has become a reality and we see here gathered together representatives of many races and of nationalities united in a common cause. It is apparent to me that every effort has been made and no pains have been spared to make this Conference a success, and the spirit of cordiality and of hospitality is being felt by us on every hand and has been happily and ably expressed by these eloquent addresses of welcome.

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As a representative of the Asiatic Division of the Federation I wish to bring you greetings from Asia. I wish also to bring you greetings from the 200,000 teachers and educators of China, the country which I represent. (Applause). I wish also to express our deep and heartfelt appreciation for this most cordial welcome, and to express our sincere hope that this first biennial Conference of the Federation may be crowned with great success.

As this is the beginning of our Conference, and in the presence of so many notable friends of the Association, may I be permitted to say a word or two concerning the aims of our Association—some of the considerations which prompted us to form this international organisation of education. The object of the Association has been read by the Chairman of the evening. Putting it concisely, we may say that the aim of this Federation is to promote international goodwill and world peace through international co-operation in education. (Applause). It was conceived that while diplomacy and international law have their due influence, while arbitration and alliance and the League of Nations and World Courts have their important place in the settlement of international disputes, they are nevertheless not fundamentally sufficient, in that they do not remove the fundamental causes of War and establish permanently a foundation for peace. It is believed that the peoples of the world to-day in their good relationship are influenced greatly by certain conceptions as to the purpose and nature of a nation and by certain national and racial prejudices which constitute a great obstacle to international peace, and that unless conditions are removed or substantially modified no mission can be set up which can permanently make for international security. It is therefore necessary to introduce, in addition to all schemes for the settlement of international disputes, an educational probity, to teach the peoples of the world, particularly the young generation, the ideals of international amity and understanding, the

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absurdities of War, touching their conscience and imagination as well as their reasoning power. We believe that given a change of mind, a disposition for peace, any scheme, political, economic or religious, will become effective for its purpose. Without it no peace plans can long survive and the best worded treaty or agreement will be a mere scrap of paper.

If this, Ladies and Gentlemen, is a correct conception of our aim, of our mission, then the educational interests represented here at this Conference have assumed to themselves a very serious part and a great responsibility, for in order to ensure international peace we have to see that all national aims for territory, for power, for gain, and all international rivalry and jealousy must be greatly subdued, if not entirely eliminated. We must teach the nations of the world that the greatness of a nation does not rest upon its military strength nor upon its wealth, but rather upon its unselfish bearing and service to others. (Applause.) We must remove through education and through other means the spirit of fear and mistrust, the spirit of hatred and revenge, the spirit of prejudice and of ignorance, and we must cultivate in its place the spirit of goodwill, of concord, of sympathy and of mutual confidence. (Applause.) In other words, we have to make every attempt to remove all the fundamental causes of war and to create new ideals of international understanding and amity through the teaching of the right kind of history, through the exchange of teachers and Professors of different nations, through the correspondence of school children of different nations, and through many other methods and devices.

A question may be raised, what assurance have we of our success? The answer is found in the belief that if five million teachers are fully convinced of the evils of war and of the necessity for peace and are willing to dedicate their lives to this task, they can make a great

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contribution to this cause. (Applause.) They can help to develop the will to co-operate and the will for peace. They can help to create a strong public opinion and a strong moral judgment against the use of force and in favour of peace, and the consequence of our success will be greatly strengthened when we remind ourselves of the fact that in this important undertaking we are by no means single-handed. Societies and Associations organised for the promotion of international goodwill have been long at work, and much creditable work has been already done to pave the way for greater achievements. The cause has come to the teachers and educators of the world and others to join hands with them and to give a new impetus to this important movement.

The educational method of removing the causes of war, of establishing a permanent foundation for peace, attempting as it does to change the mental habits of the world, is necessarily a very slow one. It is a process of evolution and not of revolution. Now, to my mind, we of this day and of this generation can only make a beginning, but it is a beginning that is well worth while, because it represents one of the most effective and fundamental means of leading the world into the ways of peace. (Applause.) It is a most important undertaking, and every nation represented at this Conference, be it great or small, strong or weak, is expected to contribute her share, but upon the great and the strong naturally lies responsibility of leadership, for the simple reason that more is expected from those who receive most. To my mind it is the duty of the teachers of those nations to use their influence and to guard against any tendency on the part of their country towards its ancient belief that they are the chosen people, and thereby unconsciously or consciously allowing themselves to override the rights of others. It is the duty of the teachers and educators of these countries to see that justice is always placed above might, and that in dealing

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with nations the principle of equality and of justice and of self-determination should be always applied in their international relationships. Especially towards weak and small nations it is the duty of educators and teachers of every country to use their influence for international goodwill, to hope for peace, to think about peace, to speak of peace, and to fill the entire world with an atmosphere of peace. (Applause.)

The attitude of China—a country having one-third of the human race—towards this great movement constitutes one of the important elements towards its success. I am glad to tell you that this movement for peace through education is receiving ready response and hearty support from the teachers and educators of that country. Already two of the most influential educational Associations have joined this Federation, and realising that ignorance is one of the greatest obstacles to international understanding, China has launched a vigorous movement for popular education and has adopted as a slogan the removal of illiteracy during the present generation, and already within the last two years over two million illiterates have been taught to read and write. The Government of China is also interested in the aims of this Federation, as shown by the fact that the observance of the Goodwill Day adopted at San Francisco has been officially adopted by the Ministry of Education. The fact is that China has always been a peace-loving nation. Our philosophers thousands of years ago taught us that under the heaven there is but one family. They taught us to love peace and to hate war. Unless therefore China is forced to become a military nation, her people are bound to be peace-loving in spirit as well as in politics.

In closing, permit me to say that it is my firm belief that if the sentiment from the ideas of our common origin and of our common destination and of the unity of humanity were to lay hold of the peoples of the world

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through education, making them to regard each other as citizens of the great commonwealth of mankind, the attitude of the people of the nations towards each other will be changed, and changed fundamentally for the better. As teachers and educators of the world, let us follow the example of the greatest teacher of human history, and let us, one and all, labour and pray for the generous reception and the practice of His fundamental teaching, namely, the Fatherhood of God and the Brotherhood of Man. (Applause.)

Miss OLIVE JONES, Principal of Public School No. 120, New York City : I stand here with a great many reminders of home to-night. I don't think many of you will need to be told that anybody whose name is Jones has forebears in that little country in the south-west corner of England, which is proud to call itself Wales. Also many of the things that have been said to-night have reminded me of my own home in New York. The democratic principles that I have heard expressed have carried me back to my school-day recollections of Thomas Jefferson. And then I want to say that when Miss Tweedie spoke I was also glad that one woman has had the opportunity of thanking the Scottish people for their hearty greetings. We travelled across, fifty-two of us, and we landed this morning. We travelled on a Scottish ship. Many of the people on board that ship were Scottish people returning home from various areas abroad, and they felt that it was incumbent upon them to see that every possible bit of pleasure and of explanation and of information that they could give us was at our disposal. I suspect that they frequently indulged in a little bit of their humour too, because at least one of the things that they told me I would find out I have discovered is not so. (Laughter.) However, I think they were doing what we call "joshing" in New York, but they did give us an extraordinarily good time. The captain promised us when we went on board

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that we would have everything that we wanted, and one day we responded by saying: "We want to see everything that there is in the way of weather," and we got it. (Laughter.)

Two years ago, as the sun set over the Golden Gate of San Francisco, a group of men and women gathered from many lands were inspired by a great enthusiasm and awed by a great vision. Just as the golden rays of that setting sun seemed to stretch out over the waters to all the world outside, so did the hopes enkindled in the hearts and minds of that gathering of teachers seem destined to reach out to influence the lives of all peoples on the earth. The vision has remained clear through the intervening two years, and we are here now in Scotland to prepare the means by which we may transmute the vision into reality, the dream into practical effect.

Almost every State of the Union, certainly every section of our beloved country, has sent its representative to participate in the discussions of the week and to aid in our joint efforts to discover how we may organise education so as to ensure unimpeded progress, an equal opportunity for each individual to develop and use his native talents for his own and his nation's good, and the training of children in international goodwill and co-operation essential to continued peace and prosperity. Thus may the dream be made true.

Friends, teachers of children in many lands, like Gideon of old, we must search out worthy workers in our great cause. Difficulties, discouragements, suspicion, opposition, occasional defeat, may all lie ahead of us as we push on to our great objective. Now is the time for us to search our hearts and cast out fear or leave the task to braver souls.

Just in the degree that we who to-day represent the teachers of our various home lands remain true to the

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vision embodied in the creation of this World Federation will the children of to-morrow realise the ideals set forth in that vision.

Let us recall Paul's words to King Agrippa : " O King, I was not disobedient unto the heavenly vision." Thus may it be with us at this first biennial Conference of the World Federation of Education Associations appropriately held on Scotland's soil. And so with high hopes and faith supreme, the American representatives thank you for your cordial greetings and pledge you our utmost co-operation in the Conference of this year and in the work of the World Federation. (Applause.)

Dr HIPPOCRATE S. CARAVIAS, Literary Society "Parnassos," Athens, briefly addressed the meeting in Greek, his remarks being interpreted by Dr Cavadas. He said : I am not able to speak in English except a few words, and that is why I address you in Greek, in the language of Plato, of which I think many of you recognise its beauty and its difficulty. I am glad to meet you to-day in the beautiful capital of Scotland, and I feel happy and proud that I am honoured to bring the spiritual greetings of the ancient city of Athens to Edinburgh, which many call " New Athens," not only because it is one of the most famous centres of learning in the world, but because of its similarity to ancient Athens. I bring the greetings of my country to all the representatives of the nations who have come to this city for the welfare and the benefit of entire humanity. (Applause.)

Before the meeting began a programme of music, arranged by Mr Robert M'Leod, Mus.Bac., F.R.C.O., was rendered, Mr W. Watt Jupp acting as leader of the orchestra. The meeting was opened with the Hundredth Psalm and appropriate hymns with full orchestral accompaniment were sung with great fervour by the large audience led by a choir of students from Moray House

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Training College. Probably the hymn which most attracted the audience by its suitability was that by John Addington Symonds, two significant verses of which are:

These things shall be: a loftier race
Than e'er the world hath known shall rise
With flame of freedom in their souls
And light of knowledge in their eyes.

* * * *

Nation with nation, land with land,
Unarmed shall live as comrades free;
In every heart and brain shall throb
The pulse of one fraternity.

GROUP MEETINGS.

PRE-SCHOOL EDUCATION.

Tuesday, 21st July.

The Function of the Nursery School and Kindergarten in a System of Public Education.

Lady LESLIE MACKENZIE: I should like to offer the members of this Section specially a most cordial welcome to our town and, if I may say so, to Scotland. Last night I think you all had extended to you very happy and very voluble congratulations on coming to our town and you were even given the great friendliness of being allowed a peep into our East and West questions, but to-day for our pre-school child we know neither East nor West, nor North nor South. We welcome everybody who cares to come here to discuss the necessity for the care of what we are pleased to call the pre-school child, our subject for to-day. By the question of the pre-school child I think, very largely, we mean the relationship between whatever education is given to the pre-school child and the education of the elementary schools, which they are supposed to enter at a given period.

In our schedule there is something of a Presidential address. Well, I had no intention of giving a Presidential address because I think my position here is rather curious. Probably the reason I am here to-day is that I have a little connection both with what we call the physical side of the child—child welfare—and the mental side of the child. But I never think that we can divide the child or any human being into mental and physical.

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That is a mistake always. I think I have read somewhere that physical exercise is a mental act, and that is true at every stage, but I have had some experience both in the training of the children in an infant school of the old days; and after I came to this town I went into the Education Authority and was for a number of years there mainly concerned about the medical inspection of school children, and I believe Edinburgh—it is quite right to make a little history sometimes—had a school doctor two years before the law of the land allowed us to have one. I am not going to say how we paid his salary, but we did it. But from the time of the 1908 Act, when we could have school doctors, we went very closely into the question of the health of the school child and it was quite evident that children came to school, in Scotland at any rate, at five years of age and I think you found in England they came at three years of age, with a great history of defects. We found that when they came in at five years of age there were the eyes, the ears and nose, throat, limbs, heart and lungs all to be seen to; for it was agreed that you could not possibly teach a child anything until you had put it into the condition physically of receiving the teaching.

For the eight or ten years I was on the Edinburgh School Board we found, no matter what medical inspection we had or what medical treatment we had, that the children were still coming into school at five years of age with the same ailments as their predecessors had thirty years before. We have them much cleaner bodily, we have them in many instances much better clothed and much better fed; but their illnesses are probably much as they were.

Then, I left the Education Authority and came out into the world to try to do something for the baby from one to five years of age in Scotland. From funds chiefly supplied by the Carnegie Trust the National Council of

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Women organised Child Welfare Exhibitions. With these we practically patrolled Scotland teaching the care of the child. We went almost to no town or village but some little instrument in connection with child welfare was established when we left.

The movement towards child welfare took many forms and one of the real forms in Scotland was the little nursery school or the kindergarten. We had had the kindergartens in Edinburgh for many many years before this and I shall say a little about that, but the general history of it was that our latest idea was a toddlers' playground, and the toddlers' playground has formed in Edinburgh one of the great instruments of care for the pre-school child. The kindergarten movement here arose out of the necessity of a better quality of child entering the elementary schools, and long ago an infant mistress in one of the very poor schools of this town saved her money and put her little savings in her will for the establishment of a kindergarten so as to prepare the children in her region to come into that slummy school in a little better condition at five years of age. That lady's name we associate with that kindergarten, and to-day we hope that you will visit it at Reid's Court. In the films that are to be shown of the education of this City you will find a very good one of Reid's Court.

Other institutions grew and grew, and to-day I have to invite any of you who can, to go to the opening of our sixth true kindergarten in Edinburgh, on Thursday afternoon in the Vennel at 2.15 p.m.

The question that will face us, I think, is this: Is the kindergarten to become part of the elementary school or is it to remain as it is now, a section apart, run very largely on voluntary and free lines. In connection with that, I think I can say even in presence of Sir Henry Keith, that often we in Scotland argue much more about

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who is to do a certain thing than *what* we shall do or *how* we shall do it. Are we going to agree as to what should be done in nursery schools and how it should be done? I think that really brings us to what our subject is to-day. I am sorry to say that Miss Margaret Macmillan, whom we had all expected to be with us to-day, is not able to be here. Miss Julia Wade Abbot, however, has brought a message from Miss Macmillan.

Miss JULIA WADE ABBOT, Philadelphia, Pa., U.S.A.: I feel very inadequate indeed to represent Miss Macmillan and her work. This is the first visit I have ever paid to the British Isles, and I am so full of emotion perhaps because of my English heritage, and my impressions have been so complex that I could hardly describe my experience of the morning that I spent in Miss Macmillan's school last week. Miss Macmillan was ill, but at the end of my visit I was asked to see Miss Macmillan and talk with her.

In the course of our conversation, she said one thing which I thought was very striking. She was talking about the psychological laboratories and the physical tone of the child and she said, "We will have to keep research and nurture in separate boxes." I think she made that statement in relation to objectives, and I want to say here that in the United States we are more happy that public moneys are being paid for kindergartens and that in many places the kindergartens are an integral part of our elementary school system.

We have over 500,000 pupils in the kindergarten paid for out of public money, but we have 4,000,000 children of that age to educate. The challenge is not how early to reach the child, but how to take into consideration his whole day and we who are doing the kindergarten work in the United States know how inadequate it is to have a little child three hours a day in a good kindergarten

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and having all that has been done being undone the rest of the twenty-four hours. In Miss Macmillan's school they have taken the children out of their homes and put them in a child garden. They are making a very practical experiment.

Miss EDNA WHITE, Merrill Palmer Nursery School, Detroit, U.S.A.: I think it ought to be recognised first that the movement has been quite different in its origin from the movement here in England. We have children of course, as you have, who are in need of the social uplift that comes from the nursery school, but perhaps because the need is so pressing here that need impressed you most. From our standpoint, partly because the Foundation that I represent bequeathed the money for teaching child care, we came to the problem of the little child from quite a different angle.

We have been thinking in terms of teaching. I might put it perhaps another way—in terms of parental and pre-parental education, which, of course is a different problem. We thought of the nursery school and the group of little children as, in a certain sense, a laboratory. I want to qualify that statement, to make you understand that before you can make use of such a laboratory you must provide as nearly ideal conditions as possible for your children. There must be no question of exploitation of these children. They must be happy and left absolutely free because you do not observe children as they should be observed unless they are in perfectly normal and natural conditions with every opportunity of free development. (Applause.)

We are only interested in children as they are naturally, not as they are trained in accordance with adult ideas, but we are trying to provide for them the type of environment that will assist their development. That varies, of course, with different children. Their tendencies are

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quite different and the most that adults can do is to provide this environment. Leave the children free, with adults who are nearby to offer such guidance as will help, not hinder.

Our problem, therefore, has been largely educational. In order to understand the development of children, and in order that it may not be hampered by the warping conditions which accompany our social conditions, the group of children which we have in the nursery school which I represent come from quite a different group in society. Now, understand clearly that we are interested in the other group, but we wanted to derive our educational principles from the group that had not suffered from the warping effects of bad economic and social conditions. Our children, therefore, for the most part—although they do represent a mixed group and we have some very poor children—are children of the professional and educated classes.

I was interested in what Lady Mackenzie said about a child developing in an all-round way. We have on our staff, a medical man, a nutrition specialist, a psychological specialist, a social specialist, and so on. We have these for various reasons. Miss Macmillan thought that research and nurture ought to be separate. I think I should agree with that. For instance, if you had to bring in a separate medical officer, the children would not know him and it would be somewhat of a strain and a different experience to them. We obviate that by having a medical officer attached to the school.

I realise that, in an ordinary school, such a large staff of specialists would not be possible, but it seemed to us that, with funds available for this purpose, we might be of use to people everywhere if we learned more about children. So our particular object has been to make such contribution as we can to the knowledge of childhood by making use of these means.

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Now you will realise that the student that we have is of a different type as well. Since we are interested in developing courses in child care, we must, of course, have a student body. The student body in this case is drawn from the leading Colleges and Universities in the States. We have had this last quarter students from fifteen of the leading Colleges and Universities in the States, such as Cornell, Columbia, and so on. We thought it was time that scientific people realised that this was an applied science. We took the students who were best prepared to appreciate and help in this development. We can only take a limited and select number.

Our Colleges and Universities throughout the States are going to experience the results of that study of child care, and they are showing that in the very practical way of giving University training with a science background, and they are in turn as rapidly as they can establishing such laboratories. So much for the type of school that I represent.

There are in the States in addition two or three examples, probably not more, of the type which is so well developed here. There is such a school in Boston. That represents the type of child with which you are familiar. There are two points I want to make here, and one is that in handling children in this way one must make sure that they have every opportunity for development, absolute freedom, under the guidance of specialists who are thoroughly well prepared. As this work is introduced into our Universities, we may hope eventually to have our teachers understand from the College-trained teacher through the secondary-trained teacher that the work with little children is the basis of all education. You see, we are coming to the same thing that is expressed in your Act, but we are doing it in a different way and we are endeavouring to safeguard the methods that are applied to children and to set the standards at a very high level, because, as these Colleges and Universities develop, they will be expected

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to conform to the same standards that they would conform to in developing any other science. They cannot, therefore, deal with the children unless they have the best of medical care and the best of psychological care because these experts will be on their staffs.

A little later on, of course, there comes the chance of applying the educational principles which have been developed here to the problems that arise in different directions. From the University angle, we have a considerable number of beginnings of these schools. Ohio State University has within the last year established a nursery school for the benefit of students in economics. Those students are those who have backgrounds in biology, chemistry and nutrition, and in most cases psychology will come to be increasingly required. They are therefore able to understand courses which are given in an advanced way. Cornell University is holding this summer its second summer nursery school, which is in charge of one of the teachers who has been on our staff. Nebraska University is this summer holding its first nursery school. There is in prospect a full-time nursery school of this type at Cornell University and one at the University of Minnesota, and Macgill University is to establish a nursery school.

Those schools have been financed by one of the large Foundations in the States. It represents both Canada and the States, and this particular Foundation, which is for the purpose apparently of developing work with women and children, has already fostered the movement to the extent of establishing within this coming year four such schools.

Now, we have had, as Miss Abbot said, our kindergartens at various times. They are an integral part, of course, of the school systems. Now, it seems easier with us to make people understand the need for parental and pre-parental education at present than it does to make them understand the needs of childhood, so we have made a

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beginning in putting this into the public school because a nearby suburb has put in a nursery school as part of its High School. We have tried to make it as nearly as possible ideal. We have tried to find out the things that we thought any intelligent parent should know about the child. It is very difficult to get a combined judgment on the child. What we think should be done is to make the parents understand that the child needs this all-round care, but one programme must fit in with the other, so we try with the children we have, to learn something about them from every angle, but when that is done the medical man and nutrition specialist, the psychological specialist and the social specialist must sit down in council and work out a programme for that child, and that is the programme we try to give to our parents.

We are not in any sense interested in relieving our parents of parental responsibility, but we do feel that in these modern days our parents, of whatever grade they may be, need some information and some programme upon which they can develop their child to the best of its ability. If it is a child of very great mental ability and a poor school, then these things must be taken into account and the parent must be made to understand that we are in no sense interested in relieving the parents of responsibility, but we feel that through the service of these specialists we are able to present the parents with a programme which enables them to develop the child along the best possible lines.

We can in our school at present take only 60 children—we have two groups of about 35 and 28, and we have a waiting-list of something over 300 children. We have made the community feel that the kind of thing they get there is what they ought to have. That is the best answer to the statement that is often made that the home is at all ages the best place for the child. (Applause.)

Miss GRACE OWEN, M.E.D., City of Manchester Training College : I have only a few words to say. I take it

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that this meeting is being chiefly devoted to an exchange of experiences, that we are all eager to hear the work we are doing in our different countries and different cities, and therefore I think I had better perhaps say a little about the work in which I have been taking part in Manchester.

I should say a word about the way we have been trying to devise a course of special training for the teachers in nursery schools. In England the nursery school problem is being attacked less from the experimental than from the social side. We have had to plunge into the difficulty of meeting the needs of the little child under the ordinary school age in great numbers.

We have to meet the problem of training teachers and those who care for such children, more from the ordinary type of teacher than those Miss White has told us about. Manchester has therefore organised a course of training specially for these teachers. The College in which I have been helping to work this out is the Mather Training College. It is entirely under the City, entirely a Municipal College. The problem has been to devise a training which will give the teacher a somewhat different outlook from that of the ordinary teacher in the school. We felt that we had to try and meet the three aspects of the work; that nursery school training requires from the teacher a knowledge of the conditions of health and of the child mind, and also, to a certain extent, of the outlook of the social worker; and the particular characteristic of the course as distinct from other courses is the emphasis that is laid on training in hygiene, and the Manchester Committee through the College has organised a special training of two years, a feature of which is that each student takes a certain amount of training in hospital. Each student goes into the children's or babies' hospital for three months at a time, and is treated like an ordinary nurse except that she gets more variety of experience in an hospital than an ordinary nurse does in three months.

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At the beginning we had great difficulty in getting the hospitals to allow us to send the teachers owing to the fact, as they said, that they were only beginning to be of use when they left. Their attitude, however, has now changed, and they are now even welcomed for this short course. In the hospitals the students acquire experience of the care of the sick child, and many people would say, "Well, when your students are going to care for what we hope will be the normal child, why do you put them through hospital training?" When this was started I had a very open mind about it, but in the course of some years we have realised that the care of the sick child does bring out for the coming teacher the importance of the laws of health. My conclusion is that this period of training in hospital with sick children does make the students realise the fundamental rules of health in a way that perhaps no other training could.

Another thing we have in mind in continuing this hospital training is that our standard of hygiene in the elementary schools—to which the nursery schools must sooner or later be more closely connected, and with which in England the nursery school is being developed—is lamentably below what we maintain it should be in the nursery schools. In order that the right start may be made, it is necessary to give the intending teacher in a nursery school a very drastic training in the importance of every aspect of hygiene and health, and we find that living day and night in an hospital with the children under the hospital régime does that perhaps better than anything else.

I would like to add that I believe that the hospital training does—and I think my colleagues agree with me—give a solid basis to the student's work in psychology, especially as she has been watching babies and very young children. She has a mass of incidental observation to use later on when she is studying more the theoretical side of education. On this side of the training they also

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have a certain number of opportunities to attend in an out-patient ward of a hospital where they get a particular kind of help, which is from seeing a great many children being treated by the doctors in succession. One important part of the nursery school superintendent's work is that you must learn to be quick and practical and to be able to diagnose quickly whether a child needs any special medical treatment. I need hardly add that all this work depends for its success on the co-operation of the doctors in the hospitals and the nurses and sisters in the wards, and in that I may testify that we have been most generously treated and that the experiences that the students have had through the incidental conversation or instruction of the doctors has been invaluable. It is not just the scheme or the thing that is arranged that really matters so much, it is what they are gaining through it in ways that cannot be set out on paper or put down in outlines.

In conclusion, I would say that perhaps the value of this side is as much as anything else its influence on the whole outlook of the nursery school work. It is an endeavour to treat the child as a whole personality and not in compartments, as has been alluded to by Miss Abbot already. I think that is really the keynote that we want—that kind of outlook with these little children—that we are not only thinking of their physical side or their teaching side, but we are treating the child as a whole the whole time, and for that reason, whatever schemes of training we advise—and I am far from thinking that the way we are doing it in Manchester is the only way, and I don't want to say it is the best way, but, whatever way we choose—we must have for the superintendent of nursery schools preparation from various sides so that she may be able and capable of helping the child from her own personality.

The different special types on the staff are necessary, but you do want one who is a unifying element, and she must be trained on several sides and must get her train-

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ing so that the candidate for this work must be sufficiently prepared and be an expert in the different work of the experts, which is extremely important to the work that must be done. I feel that is the keynote of the training and one which will be worked out in the years that are coming in very many different ways.

Miss C. WINIFRED HARLEY, Merrill Palmer Nursery School, Detroit : I think perhaps you would be interested to know first of all that I am English, that I was a teacher in an elementary school in the City of Bradford for a number of years, that I trained for my nursery school work in Manchester under Miss Owen, that I had a nursery school in London in connection with the Gipsy Hill Training College under Miss de Lissa, and that now I am working with Miss White and have charge of the nursery schools in Detroit. I have experience in the English nursery school and also in the American one, and I took a great many things, of course, from England to America, but I have learned much on the other side.

I know that some of you may be thinking that our scheme is one of watertight compartments with our various kinds of specialists, the doctor, the nutrition specialist, the psychologist, and the physiologist, but if you came into the nursery school you would see that these specialists do not interfere in any way with the nursery school programme for the children. Everything goes on just as it does in the English nursery schools. The children go out in ones or twos. It keeps me exactly in the place where I should be, as the all-round person who keeps the nursery school together as a whole.

But I am very glad to have these people come when I see that Johnnie or Tommy or Mary does not look particularly well, for I can immediately transfer my responsibility to somebody else. I am free, therefore, to do my particular job well. In the case of food, also, there are certain children who cannot or will not eat; then along comes the nutrition specialist. We do not, of course,

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regard it as absolutely necessary to have all these specialists around each individual school, but we consider it necessary that the nursery school teachers will be so trained that they will know how to make use of these specialists.

A DELEGATE: Would Miss White tell us the number of students normally?

Miss WHITE: They are developing. In place of carrying the work through the year as a separate course, they are sent to us for a division of time; sometimes it is a quarter. In no sense are those students training for teachers; it is a unit in their course. We may in that way get two groups or three groups. We can only have in residence, and we take them in residence, at the most 35. We have in that number some graduate students who stay for the year. The students are given their lecture work in psychology, and then they are sent to the nursery school for two full mornings a week, so they do get some practice. They eat with the children and they plan all the children's food, and they also help the doctor in the examinations, so they get practically from three to four full mornings a week with the children. Their lecture work is all done in the afternoons.

ANOTHER DELEGATE: What amount of time does the specialist devote to the study of the child, for instance, the psychologist, during the week?

Miss WHITE: As it happens, we are interpreting part of our problem as a research problem. These people are all full-time specialists on the staff and are doing research work during the time they are not directly concerned with the teaching or with the children.

LADY LESLIE MACKENZIE: The problem that is before us to-day is—Are experiments in education of young children to be encouraged in order that they may contribute to the scientific side of elementary education? To what extent can we use these methods and ways of doing in the ordinary elementary school, or are we going to be

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satisfied with bringing on generations of children trained in the nursery school into the elementary school and then let them sink or swim there?

Dr WHITE, London: I should like to ask Miss Grace Owen why and in what respects the standard of hygiene in the nursery school must be so much higher than in the elementary school? In London we have children in the ordinary elementary school of the same age as in the nursery schools.

LADY LESLIE MACKENZIE: In Scotland our technical infant begins at five years of age. That is our school age, and that is the lowest age for which a local authority almost up till now will make provision in an elementary school. We may have children in about four, or four going five, but in many schools they are not even put on the register; they just sit about and see what is going on. In England again, I understand you have many of your children in at three years of age. There must be a difference, and it is how to bridge that difference.

Miss GRACE OWEN: I feel that this is quite a big question. I certainly would maintain that the standard of one practical side of the work, the standard of cleanliness, which surely is fundamental to all our work with these young children, is not in our elementary schools at all what we consider essential for children of nursery school age. We are working for a higher standard. Taking the country as a whole, the number of times the floors of the buildings are cleaned is not up to the standard which we consider necessary for children of the nursery school age. To get that put right would mean putting down linoleum on the floors instead of having scrubbing everywhere. Everyone knows what emphasis is put in the nursery schools on such things as brushing of teeth regularly and learning the habit of washing hands at certain times, not having them washed for the child but putting his intelligence into the washing of his hands. We are anxious to start with the right ideals at the bottom, hoping that they

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will go upwards. The attendance of a nurse is also one of the things that we consider necessary as part of the nursery school régime; arrangement of the sleeping hour with little children, ventilation, equipment, hygiene of buildings, and ever so many things besides.

These things cannot be done in a moment; it would take years before the standard was what it should be. But we do want to start right at the bottom. We have a new chance, and we want to set our faces in the right direction and keep the ideals pretty high. We do not think the children of pre-school age should be picked out for favoured treatment, but rather that they should set the pace for what will undoubtedly come for the later age. Most of the Directors of Education in England are looking forward to the infant and the nursery school raising the standard of the ages above in these and other ways.

LADY LESLIE MACKENZIE: I was rather amused to hear that the hygiene of the buildings was one thing and the hygiene of the child was another. When we began our Toddlers' Playground we made it a rule that the child had to be cleaned and always had a clean pinafore on, and it had to have many things that it evidently had not had before it left home, and the one regret and the one blame that we got from the parents was, "Are ye going to be as hard as the School Board?"

So long as you get trained teachers into the nursery school, they will teach, and in my opinion it is not teaching that we want in the nursery school. It is a very curious person who is going to be the real nursery school mistress. My feeling about the kindergarten is that there you will live with the children. You neither teach them nor supervise them—you live with them, and it is one of the most difficult things on earth to live with a little child. I have very serious difficulty indeed about the training of the woman who is going to be the nursery school mistress, and I am much more concerned about whether this nursery

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school is going to be a part of the elementary school. If it is going to be a single room with 30 or 40 children in it, and with perhaps a less qualified teacher, then I say we are better with them in the elementary school—(applause)—and it is that point that I hope this great Federation will try to settle.

When the 1918 Act was passed for Scotland and our Medical Officer in Edinburgh went round the kindergartens to see what they were doing and see whether he could ask the Town Council to offer them a grant, in the best kindergarten there were 50 children, and he said, "Fifty in these surroundings! I want to see 500," and the mistress said, "That is most unintelligent on your part, to speak of a kindergarten with 500."

Miss MACDONALD, Lanarkshire: Might I ask how many pupils there are in Miss White's school and what fees the parents pay?

Miss WHITE: We have 60 children and the parents pay a fee of 25 dollars a quarter. That, of course, does not cover the cost of the expert service; it just covers the cost of the food and that type of service.

Miss CHIGNELL, Principal, Princeville Nursery School, Bradford: Miss Macmillan found manifold difficulties and we are still struggling with the same difficulties. We have been struggling all the time with the environment the child came from. Our aim in the nursery school is to give an ideal education, and the idea is to get the co-operation of the parents in our aims because we found that not only had we the child who had received no nurture to deal with, but we had also his wrong environment. Our problem is to help the parents to give the child nurture and to continue the work which we are doing in the nursery schools, and that is the work we were doing in Detroit and we are now doing in Bradford. We have to deal with children who have not

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had nurture, and nurture is spoken of so much in the nursery school because you must have a nurtured child before it can be taught. Miss Macmillan is an educationist before everything else, but she was hindered in her great ideal because she found that the child was in need of medical inspection.

Mrs HOWARD GANS, President of the Federation of Child Study, New York: We have been able to get the co-operation of the parents by having Child Study Groups and that has been going on for two years with increasing success. First of all we had to ask the parents to come; now they are asking to come.

Dr KERR, London: It seems to me, Lady Mackenzie, that this pre-school child is really a problem of civilisation which has suddenly cropped up. We were unprepared for it, but the children not getting the opportunities for mental development which children in past years have had, we have had to do something for them. Nutrition also is, of course, an important thing.

The Merrill Palmer School which Miss Edna White has been telling us about and which is one of the bright lights of the world at present is not a school; it is a laboratory. It is a laboratory which is producing work for the whole world and is doing services for the whole of the world, and it wants specialists. It is finding out things for us that will give us rules that will be reduced to perhaps a twelve-months' course; or a five-years' course of observation will be reduced to a single sentence which will be useful to teachers.

We have all the teachers engaged in the discussion of the question of how the child should sit up, and it can all be reduced to a single rule. The lady who looks after the work in New York reduced it to what is called the ear test. As long as a line drawn from the ear does not fall in front of the line of the centre of the shoulder everything will be right. If you can keep a child so that it holds its ear behind that line, all the other arrange-

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ments are made automatically by the nervous system and the nervous system will train itself a great deal better than you can train it, and, what is more, the subconscious parts and the reflex parts, the old brain as it is called, which is mind education, has so fixed it that education is practically useless to it. It will develop and it will educate the upper parts, so that if you put a child in the right way, as it were, for this posture, all these little details are looked after; the brain will make its own arrangements.

Someone was talking just now about the brain of a child being different from the brain of a grown-up person, as it certainly is. The brain of a child is not developed. It is going to grow to three or four times its extent before it is grown-up, but the small toddler is quite a different animal—it is not a human being, in fact a little earlier it is a quadruped, and it learns entirely by imitation and suggestion. It has capacities that you have not. It can tell at a glance whether you are angry or pleased with it and the slightest hint to a child is sufficient, so that, as Lady Leslie Mackenzie has said, we don't need the certificated teacher to drill things into the toddler or the pre-school child; in fact, the pre-school child is being damaged and arrested and kept back by the certificated teacher and their organisation. They are afraid that it means dilution by people coming in at the back door, and the result is that we are not getting these schools developed as we should get them. All your specialists will not be necessary if your school has a nurse and a person who has a general survey of the whole affair and lets the child grow by itself.

MISS LILLIAN DE LISSA, Principal, Gipsy Hill Training College, London: I must protest and protest with great force against the last speaker. The assumption here is that the teacher in this modern day of psychologists—the modern teacher—is someone who drills facts into the child. The modern teacher is a person who is con-

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cerned with growth. She is to-day as the amateur gardener is to his plant. She is giving all the advantages in order that the growth may come about properly. The little child is not an animal; he is a human being. As a human being, he needs all that belongs to us by human birthright. Should we think the teacher is concerned only with teaching him and not realise that she must give him food by which his mind and his reason may grow? No teacher, whether she is a nursery teacher or an ordinary school teacher, is content to be what the last speaker suggested she is. I think we should have to differentiate between training and training. The training of infant school teachers is a very specialised training. It is going on completely different lines from what teacher training has been conducted in the past and on lines on which it must necessarily be conducted.

Mr KENNEDY FRASER: I am afraid I cannot act quite so well as Dr Kerr in bringing out the point you want brought out. I don't know whether he considers himself an emetic or what, but he has got the statement of the case much more clearly than we have got it up to now. One point that was raised was with regard to the different stages in the development of the child. Unfortunately, certain psychologists have given different ages, but that cannot fit into an administration scheme because it is only, after all, a very roughly guessed average. No two children come to the same stage at the same time. While from the point of view of teaching and making points clear we try to differentiate between different stages, in my opinion we cannot lay down a point where you can divide the one from the other.

The discussion has really come to this: as Lady Leslie Mackenzie said, who is to do it and not how we are going to do it. Until we get one authority looking after the child right from the beginning to the end, the treatment won't fit the fact that the child is not developing in jumps. The treatment must be continuous. Dr Kerr

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referred to the fact that the necessity for nursery school education seems suddenly to have arisen. I don't know whether the suggestion is worth anything or not, but it seems to me that a very large amount of the necessity for nursery school training, special training for children at that special age, is just arising from the more civilised age in which we are living.

Sir HENRY KEITH: In calling upon me, Lady Mackenzie, I think you have chosen the wrong man. I am sitting beside the Rev. Mr M'Queen of Glasgow, who has been making a specialty of this subject for many years and I think he would have been perhaps more qualified to speak than I. I am very much interested in what Miss Edna White has said. Her school is apparently what we would call a demonstration school, but what struck me most particularly about it is that it did not fit into the problem that we have as regards nursery schools. Apparently the children are drawn from the better class in Detroit, and what we have to deal with most particularly are the children drawn from the poorest classes. They are the problem that we feel has to be dealt with in Scotland. We don't recognise so much the necessity of a nursery school for the class of parent who can provide a nursery for themselves and can give children their playthings and let them run loose in their own houses. So I don't think we have attacked the real problem—the problem of the nursery school for the lowest classes. That seems to have been dealt with in London, in some of the large towns in England and also in Edinburgh to a certain extent. You ask Who is to do it?

While the compulsory age in Scotland at the present time is five years of age, that has not precluded children from coming into the primary school even at four, and I question whether, even if a parent sent a child at three and the headmaster or the teacher concerned chose to take the trouble of the child, that that child would be

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absolutely excluded. Of course, for every child that comes into a Scottish school there is a Government Grant at the present time of £4 3s. and that would be paid in respect of a child of four years of age if the child was in regular attendance and the teacher was assured that the child was on the roll and would attend.

I have no hesitation in saying that if nursery schools have to become a part of our educational and particularly of our social system the State has to pay it up to a certain point and the ratepayer has to pay the remainder. That is what is done at the present time. Miss White tells us that in her school the parents pay no less than 8s. a week in fees. That, in Scotland, would be regarded as absolutely prohibitive. I am not quite sure what even the middle classes, after the dose they have had of free education, would say if they were called upon to pay 8s. a week. I don't know why in republican and democratic America they don't have free education all round. If there is such a thing as free education, we mean that the cost shall be a charge upon the State either through taxes or rates. I say that when nursery schools become a part of our social system then the State will pay it as it is paying all free education at the present time.

Lady LESLIE MACKENZIE: We have come really to the end of our first meeting, and from this the Secretary will gather together enough for a discussion on this point, but I would like to hear if Miss White has anything to say now.

Miss EDNA WHITE: I want to say that there seems to be misinformation with regard to free education in the States. We have free education in the States from the age of five years, and of four years in some places. The question may come later as to nursery schools. If nursery schools become a part of the public school systems, they will undoubtedly be the same as the other schools.

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Wednesday, 22nd July.

Lady LESLIE MACKENZIE in the Chair.

CHAIRMAN: This afternoon, in the first instance, we are to consider the following problem:

Is it possible and practicable to formulate definite principles, materials, programmes, and aims of the nursery school and kindergarten, and to co-ordinate these with elementary education and life?

The first speaker on this subject is Miss Drummond.

Address by Miss MARGARET DRUMMOND, Edinburgh.

Miss DRUMMOND: We all know that there are various points of view from which we can approach the study of the pre-school child. We may approach it from that of the nursery school teacher; of the health specialist; or of the psychologist, and I may confess to you that, on the whole, I approach it from the point of view of the psychologist. I am in close association with one of our free kindergartens in Edinburgh, as Secretary, and I often go to learn from the little children that are there, but my special interest is in psychology. You want to study the child not only from the age that is usually looked upon as the beginning of the pre-school age, but from the age of nothing at all.

Now, the question that I have been asked to speak to to-day is with regard to "whether it is possible and practicable to set up for all interested teachers a definite line of principles, materials, programmes, and aims of the nursery school and kindergarten." It seems to me that that is really a psychological question. The principles on which we carry on our kindergartens and our pre-school work must, I think, be psychological. Now, if we suppose that human nature is fundamentally the same all the world over, then we should be able to arrive at certain principles which will hold good in the kindergartens and nursery schools all over the world.

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Our present ignorance of the natural psychological development of the little child will prevent any dogmatism here, and, if I seem to speak at all dogmatically, I am sure you will understand that it is simply because when one is trying to compress one's thoughts one has not really time to balance this side against that side, and I speak convinced that we have still a great deal to learn with regard to the psychology of the developing mind.

That very ignorance that we confess to with regard to the development of the child's mind, would seem to suggest that one of the principles of the nursery school must be the principle of freedom; and here there is a great deal of agreement in all the countries of the world. Even with regard to the older children we are beginning to realise that there should be a great deal more freedom than there has been in the past. With regard to the baby, we have got long past the stage where we wrapped up its little limbs and prevented it from kicking out as Nature tells it to kick out. We give the baby as much freedom as we can, and in the modern methods of education, we do work towards freedom.

But the great difficulty that meets us at this point is the meaning of the word "Freedom." We do not mean that in giving freedom to the little child he should be left free to follow any of his impulses. This is particularly true of the child that comes to even the nursery school. The child who comes to school at two or two-and-a-half is, to a very large extent, a developed little person. That little person has impulses which have been wrongly directed. It is part of the work of even the nursery school teacher to correct those impulses of the child and to lead those impulses to express themselves in right ways. So that by "Freedom" we do not mean "Just let the children do what they like." We mean that they must be led to like to do what is right.

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Some people will say perhaps that I am here imposing an adult morality on the child. There are some people who seem to think we ought to question the morality we have arrived at through the hundreds of years of development that we have gone through. Well, I would not accept our present morality as final, but I think it is our duty, with regard to the little child, to put it in possession of certain fundamental principles and customs. We all realise that we should live at peace with one another; that we ought to love one another; that we ought to make room in this world for other people; and in the nursery school we teach our little children how to fulfil those laws of society, and of civilisation. One of the things that, in any nursery school, the little children learn, is how to keep themselves back when other people are using the material that they want. They may stand and they may watch, but they must not take too soon. Now, what the child who is in possession of the material learns is that he really should not keep it too long, that it is a nice thing and a kind thing for him to allow the other child to have it after a little while; and by tiny practices of that kind the children learn how nice it is to help other people. That, I think, is a very important lesson, and is one of the lessons that we should teach in all our nursery schools. It seems to me an ethical principle that we will really accept as world-wide.

Again, psychologists believe we are related to the animal creation. We were told yesterday, in this room, that the little child is just a little animal. Well, that was flatly denied, and if perhaps we emphasise the word "just," we should all be inclined to deny it; but, in the little child, there is a great deal of the animal—but I do not know why we should be ashamed of that at all. Animals are very nice too. There is something very charming about a well behaved dog or rabbit. There is something very charming about all animals, and so, if we do partake of that animal nature, we have no reason whatever

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to be ashamed of it. But, we must be careful that we do not by our human ideas, which are often very wrong, let our instincts go astray. For instance, it is right we should secure sufficient food, but it is not right we should grasp that food greedily and take more than our share. It is right, I think, that we should desire wealth. Much depends, however, on how we should use our wealth, and, more and more, we are coming to realise that those of us who obtain wealth are in possession of a trust. We, as human beings, must come to gather all our instincts together as a sort of team of horses and drive them, this one now, that one again, restrain this one, or restrain that one, in the interests of our human needs; and that is what we have to begin to teach the little child in the nursery school. There, I think, we have a principle which is common to all nursery schools all over the world.

Further, with regard to these instincts, you can spoil the child before he comes to the nursery school at all. There is the instinct of self-assertion, an instinct which we used to think should be crushed—breaking a child's will. We never talk about that now. It is perfectly certain that in the very early years of childhood, before the child is three, we often lead this instinct astray. We often create in a child a craving for notice which is satisfied by any kind of notice. The child sometimes gets noticed if he is good, but he much more often gets noticed when he is bad. Now, if you have a child who is satisfied with being noticed, there you have a child who, if he cannot obtain notice because he is good and amiable, will obtain it because he is bad and unamiable. And you see this in after life. You know the terrible experiences we have of young criminals, young murderers, who during their trial and after the verdict have shewn that their chief concern was simply—Were people talking about them? That craving to be noticed is undoubtedly fostered by a false and wrong treatment that

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is very commonly given to the young baby. The instinct itself, however, is an extraordinarily valuable one, and I could say a great deal about it.

Moreover, we have to consider the child not only as developing along the lines of instincts and along the lines of conduct in a social direction, but we have also to think of the child as a rational and intellectual being. What are you going to do with regard to the development of his distinctively human quality of rationality and intellectuality? Well, we know the human reason is aroused by certain stimuli, and, to a certain extent, what those stimuli are; that the outer world goes into the child through the doorways of the senses. The outer world comes to us through the eyes, through the ears; it comes to the little child very particularly through his sense of touch. The little children cannot see with their eyes, they see mainly with their fingers, and what we have to do in the nursery school is to give the child full freedom to exercise his senses and to exercise his senses rightly and freely over a wide range. We know that if you brought up a child in the darkness there would be certain parts of his brain that would not develop. We must, therefore, provide stimuli. If you brought up a child in a soundless world and then put him into a world where there was sound, I suppose he would not be able to hear. Well, the important thing in developing the psychology of the senses is that each thing that comes through one particular sense should come to mean a great deal more than is given by that sense. When I look at you I know more than just what I see. I know what you would feel like. There is a great deal more to the experience than just simply seeing. So that the nursery school teacher has to be wise to train the senses of the little child, and that training takes the form of providing stimuli.

Here I come to what I know is rather a contentious point, and yet I feel that we could put a very strong

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case for the use of a certain kind of material. The second point that is in the question before me is—Can we lay down a definite line for all nursery schools with regard to materials? Most of you know that Dr Montessori in the construction of her kindergarten attempted to provide the little child with basic material so that he would obtain the necessary fundamental practice for each of his senses; and she gave him certain exercises. I should not perhaps say “she *gave* him,” but she *offered* him the opportunity of taking certain exercises, and, if he chose to take those exercises, then his senses, and, through his senses, his mind, his understanding, his intellectual part, became trained. Now, it is often made a complaint against Dr Montessori that she does not allow the child freedom with the material. I am sure that you are all acquainted with the material, so that I do not really need to describe it, but suppose we take the block tower which is intended to teach dimensions. It consists of 10 blocks, of which the smallest is 1 cubic centimetre. Dr Montessori’s plan is to make the baby familiar with a cubic centimetre. It is his baby block; so that, by and by, when people in the university talk of so many cubic centimetres the child knows exactly what is meant. There are 10 blocks, and they go up by the increase of one centimetre along the edge, so that the largest block is a cube 10 centimetres along the edge. The child’s exercise is to build those up into a tower which comes steadily to the apex. The tiny child cannot do it; he does not seem to see any difference between the largest block and the second largest block. Now, we do not correct that child; we do not tell him to look more particularly at his tower and see that it is wrong. We do not think that is right for the immature child. We say to the child—if we say anything—“Would you like to knock it down and build it again?” and the child does that and goes on building this tower day after day, again and again, and we notice that after a certain length of time—

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it varies from child to child—that child is building the tower correctly. Now, the child never knows that he has built it wrongly. The child thinks he was doing it right all the time; but when we see that he is actually building it correctly we know that he has got something of importance out of the material—he has an idea of size that he did not have before. His world, which is a chaotic world as compared with ours, is clarifying; it is crystallising out.

I always like to use the example of the super-saturated solution. You may have a liquid perfectly clear, but, if you know the secret of that liquid, you know there is something in it. If you leave it alone you will get crystallisation, but if at a certain point you get a glass rod and stir it violently up, then the crystals will be spoiled. The little child's mind is like that liquid, and if you treat it rightly and if you know when to leave it alone and just what to give it, and when, in the way of stimuli, then you will have beautiful crystallisation, but if you take the stick and stir it up you will have confusion and ruin. Now, through the Montessori material, if wisely used—and that means that we never insist upon the child using any piece of material which he does not want to use—you get a basic material which helps the child to realise the nature of the world. We do not allow the child to use the Montessori material for anything but the right purposes, with certain exceptions. What is the reason of that? Why shouldn't he use this block tower for a train? I say "No"; if he wants to have a train there are plenty of other blocks that he can use. If he feels like making trains, let him get the blocks for that kind of work, but if he wants to use the block tower he can use it in its proper way. I think that is an extraordinarily valuable lesson to give anybody, because I am sure you all suffer from people who do not know that certain things are used for certain purposes. In the Training College where I teach, we have students—and I am not going to say any-

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thing against our students; I think they are splendid students—who have this great fault. We allow them to teach with our testing material, which my colleague and I have taken great trouble in preparing, and sometimes the students want the children to make a little drawing. What do they let the children make the drawing on? On postcards that we have definitely prepared for our experimental work. Why do our students when they come up to us not know that they ought to respect material? In the Montessori schoolroom we teach the children that they are to respect this scientific material. They may have other things, but the Montessori material they use for the right purpose. I should no sooner think of letting them use a piece of material for the wrong purpose, with certain exceptions, than I should allow them to build towers with the books in my library.

Then a word or two about certain other things that I think are enormously important—general principles again, in our nursery schools. One of those is that the little child, who starts from nothing at all, has as part of his work to obtain command over a very complicated machine, and that machine is his own body. He does not know, to begin with, that he has a body. It is very interesting to find the baby finding it out and pulling his own hair and realising that it belongs to himself. He has to find out about his body and how to use it. So that we must have a garden in the nursery school, and lines that the children can walk on, and stairs that the children can climb, and balls that they can throw about, and a sand heap that they can exercise their muscles with. We must, when they are ready, but not before, give them skipping ropes, teach them to march to music, to try to dance perhaps, to do all kinds of things with their bodies, because we must regard their body as a most complicated machine which has to become a servant of the mind, so that it must become a very perfect body. Here a very

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great deal might be said with regard to open air and space. These things have mental effects of enormous importance, as well as physical effects.

One word about the important and distinctive human power of language. It was only to-day that some member of the Conference said to me that many of the children in the upper school cannot spell because they cannot talk. When I go into schools they sometimes bring a child to me and they say, "What are we to do with this child? Look at her spelling." And they bring me a page, and I cannot read a word of it. It consists of a set of conglomerations of letters, but the letters seem to be haphazard. Now, you see, that child's ears from three to seven have been badly used. That child's mind is like a super-saturated solution that is stirred up. It has crystallised into ugly crystals, and she thus has to write any letter that comes into her head at the moment. If that child had been gently led through the study of analysing sounds, then she would at least have been able to spell phonetically. I consider a little child really spells correctly if you can read what she has written. Then the child learns gradually certain special ways of spelling, and says, "But how do you spell this?" and I tell her, but I do not go and say to the child, "You must not spell 'ache' with a 'k' instead of a 'ch.'" I look upon that as a curiosity of the grown-up and not of the child. We do not force those things on the child before the child's mind is ripe. Language is of tremendous importance.

Numbers is a rock I find in the upper school on which many little children's barques founder. Children are awfully muddled about number. "Do I multiply or do I divide?"—it does not seem to make much difference to them. If you say "Divide," then they will divide quite happily; if you say "Multiply," they will multiply quite happily—they don't mind! Some of them think the whole thing is a matter of chance. You say to a child of six, "What is 5 and 4?" and the child knows in a way he has

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to say some number, and he may say "20," or "10," or "7"—he doesn't know, and I am quite sure that some children think that it is simply through the teacher's favouritism that some are called right. Why does that happen? It happens because you will not give us nursery schools and you will not give us the right kind of nursery schools. The time when the child wants to know about numbers, the time when the child is lifting himself up from the plane of concrete things to the plane of the abstract, is in most cases about the age of four years. I find that very many little children take a very great interest in counting when they are three or four. It becomes almost a mania sometimes when they are between four and five; they will count everything they can see that lends itself at all to counting. Now, they often do it wrong because they do not yet understand the secret that is behind all numbering. This is a thing that very few people, even psychologists and very learned men, have fully realised, that numbering, from the very beginning, if you do it sensibly, is an abstraction, that what you are thinking about is an abstract thing. It takes a little child a long time to get through to the abstract. The child loves, when going upstairs, to say "One, two, three, four, five," along with you, but he does not really understand what he is doing, and you cannot explain it to him, because that understanding comes through mental growth and not through teaching. Because he is a human being and because he has this power of rationality within himself, he comes to realise the abstract notion that is behind all counting; and then the ordinary teacher who has not had thorough training in psychology may tackle him, but before then it is really very unsafe to try to teach. We have to wait and watch and to know from our psychology just where that little child is.

I would stress the teaching of language, the analysis of sounds; and this, I think, is general to all countries, because we all have our native language; and again, the

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teaching of number. The idea behind those things is the same idea, and I think these are among the principles and among the material that should be common to nursery schools and kindergartens in all lands.

The Relation of the Nursery School and Kindergarten to the Elementary School. Address by Miss HILDA FRODSHAM, Inspector of Nursery and Infant Schools, Manchester.

Miss FRODSHAM : Nursery School Education for children between the ages of two plus and five plus is recognised in Manchester as the first stage of its public system of Education. Though compulsory education is not enforced till children reach the age of five years, permissive attendance at school is allowed from the age of three years in any ordinary Elementary School having sufficient accommodation, or from the age of two plus in a recognised Nursery School. There are over 8000 children of the ages of three and four years in the Manchester schools, of whom 1000 are receiving Nursery School Education.

Before telling you of the various forms of administration, by means of which the work is carried on, I would like to take your mind back to the origin of Nursery School Education in England. How did it all begin?—this finding a place for the little one of two to five years of age within the big administrative system which deals with Elementary Education?

To put it briefly :—About 50 years ago were started Kindergartens for the children of parents who could afford to pay fees. These Kindergartens led, about 20 years ago, to setting up here and there little centres of missionary work among poor children. Free Kindergartens, we called them. They were a few private ventures, and carried on entirely by means of private enterprise through little committees which guaranteed the funds for rent, educational equipment, and first essential of all, a fully trained and qualified Kindergarten staff.

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On setting to work with these small groups of poor children, it was quickly seen that far more attention would have to be paid to the children's individual and personal needs, to matters of cleanliness and comfort, to health and food and sleep, to training in matters of personal hygiene, habits of self-control and self-help, to developing senses, power of speech and interests. It was soon seen also that a close touch must be maintained between the child's parents and the Free Kindergarten workers. A friendly doctor was secured to visit the children frequently and free of charge. When the world cried out against the new venture (because it is always the custom for some critics to cry out against anything new), " You are taking away the parents' responsibility," it was in time proved that, in reality, the homely little school which opened its welcoming doors to mothers and fathers, aunties and big sisters and grandmamas was, in reality, giving fresh knowledge to all these people who may at one time or another play a part in a little child's life, and so far from taking away parents' sense of responsibility, it was aroused and deepened where it had not been fully accepted before.

Day Nurseries for Crèche babies, Baby Weeks, Welfare Centres for Mothers and Babies, Open-Air Schools for Delicate Children, Miss Macmillan's Open-Air Nursery School, the School Medical Inspection of all Elementary children were meantime carrying on valuable work, and it is safe to say that each has had an influence for good upon all that is now recognised as Nursery School Education.

By 1918 the public of England had so far recognised the value of the work done in these little voluntary pioneer centres that, as many here probably know, the Education Act of that year authorised Local Education Authorities to utilise public moneys for supplying or aiding the supply of Nursery Schools (which expression includes Nursery Classes) for the care of the pre-school child.

The condition of the five-year-old who has never been

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to a Nursery School or a Nursery Class is best judged from the Report issued in 1923 by Sir George Newman, the Chief Medical Officer of the Board of Education. In this report he makes two contrasting statements. The first is that "from 80 to 90 per cent. of children are born healthy," and the second is that "out of an infant population born healthy, 35 to 40 per cent. of the children who are admitted to school at five years of age bear with them physical defects which could have been either prevented or cured," and, he adds, "this is indeed a bad start on the journey of life." Teachers of long experience will tell you that it is the children not admitted to school till the age of five years who go to make up the bulk of their B and C (*i.e.*, 2nd and 3rd) divisions in the classes all the way through the school.

What, on the other hand, may be said of the little child of five years of age who has had a pre-school training course? A normal child who has had a three years' course of Nursery Education from the age of two to five years leaves it well equipped for the work that follows. His body is healthy, with well-grown straight limbs; he is alert and vigorous; he holds his head upright, breathes through his nose, balances his weight correctly, walks and runs gracefully. He is reasonably obedient and has acquired a large number of good habits, and is, therefore, to some extent, already master of himself.

He takes an intelligent interest in his surroundings, loves work, and has a growing power of concentration and ability to go on steadily with a piece of work when left to himself. He is learning to be self-reliant, and his persistent cry of "Let me do it myself," leads him to gain many and valuable experiences.

He is developing some control of his emotions, and may be expected no longer either to be a "crybaby" or to exhibit temper when he cannot have his own way. He can share toys, and play without quarrelling. His attitude to others is friendly and trustful. Through his awakened

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love of pretty things he is able to take care of flowers, to treat toys properly, and finger a picture-book carefully. His speech is fluent and distinct. He is growing in consideration for others, and his very early impulse of "me first" is beginning to give place to "others also," and on rare occasions to "others first." He is now ready for the Infant and Junior School Course.

Our children can only have their early years of childhood once. The pre-school period is of incalculable value if rightly used.

A, says Professor Jung, A is the first letter of the alphabet—

A for attitude,
and a person's attitude towards life, and many of his habitual responses, intellectual, motor, and, above all, his emotional responses, which so greatly help or hinder in adult life are largely determined for lifetime by the time the child has reached the age of five years.

Recognising this imperative need for the education of its pre-school children as the basis of all Elementary Education, the Manchester Education Authority began in 1917 to organise a system of Nursery Classes. Mr Spurley Hey, the Director of Education for Manchester, is particularly conscious of the wisdom and the necessity for doing the utmost that is possible for the children in their earliest years, and gives every measure of advance in Nursery Education his full sympathy, support and encouragement. Acting under him two women inspectors have been largely responsible for organising the work, and there are now, in addition to two Municipal Nursery Schools, and two grant-aided voluntary Nursery Schools, forty Municipal Nursery Classes.

The policy of the Manchester Education Committee is directed towards providing means for Nursery Education along three lines of development:—

- I. The provision and maintenance of two or three Municipal Nursery Schools, and the assistance by a

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small annual grant of all Voluntary Nursery Schools in its area.

- II. The establishment of one, two, three or more Nursery Classes within each Elementary School.
- III. In every newly-built Elementary School the provision of an open-air section specially planned and equipped for Nursery Classes.

There are now two such schools in process of erection, and plans for a third have been passed. The new open-air section of the Elementary School consists of three inter-communicating living rooms for play, work, meals and sleep, two of which are separated by a moveable partition enabling one large room to be made use of for marching, for parents' gatherings, etc. A verandah runs the length of these rooms. A small separate cloak-room, bath and wash-rooms with indoor lavatory accommodation, a kitchen with scullery and pantry, complete the section for the Nursery Classes.

In front of this whole section, which faces south, is a railled-off portion of the playground for the use of Nursery children only. Separate entrances for those children admit to their own quarters. Thus the children will have the full material advantages of an Open-Air Nursery School, and are in contact with the Infant School whose Head Mistress will be responsible for them.

However, it is not the building, in the first place, that matters so much as the spirit in which the Nursery Class is undertaken, and that depends upon having the right personnel to be with the children. So a school with a vacant, sunny and airy big room, together with an understanding and zealous Head Mistress, was always chosen for starting a Class.

The Nursery Class is in the immediate charge of a carefully-selected teacher, either one who holds a Nursery School Certificate gained after a special two-years' course

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of training at one of the Nursery Colleges such as the Gipsy Hill and Goldsmiths Training Colleges, and our City of Manchester Mather Training College, under Miss Grace Owen; or failing the supply of these teachers in sufficient numbers the Class is given to a trained and experienced Infant Teacher who has both the necessary fondness for little children, together with the wisdom and humility to be able to learn new methods from her children in small numbers, from visits to Nursery Schools and other Nursery Classes, from books and lectures. It will be the business of the Local Education Authorities to arrange courses of lectures for those teachers who have not already received a special Nursery School training.

DESCRIPTION OF NURSERY CLASS ORGANISATION.

In each Nursery Class twenty-five little children of the ages of three and four years live daily as far as possible through a Nursery School régime under the Nursery teacher's care. Suitable furniture and equipment has been provided for their daily needs, similar to that supplied to a Nursery School. The aims and training are similar. In old buildings there are certain differences due to the work being in its initial stages, but gradually better facilities are added, such as indoor lavatory accommodation, means for obtaining hot water near or within the Nursery Room, easy means for heating milk, etc. Good use is made of the nearest park or roof garden or playground. It is planned that in some of the new Nursery Classes a mid-day meal shall be supplied as well as the morning lunch of milk. Parents' Associations are beginning to multiply, and the first one begun grows in numbers and in its influence on the friendliness of the women and on the improved care of their children.

The Nursery School children are under the care of the School Medical Officers, are visited by the School Nurses, and attend the ordinary school clinics for treatment of

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minor ailments. The Principal Teacher may ask, at any time, for the medical examination of any particular child whom she considers to require special attention. Cases needing massage are referred to the nearest Infant Welfare Centre. Infectious illness is watched and dealt with through the regular supervision that is given to all the Elementary Schools.

Thus the whole of the Administrative Service of the Local Education Authority, Works Department for furnishing and attention to premises, Stores Department for supplies of household, personal and educational goods, the Medical Department, including doctors, nurses, clinics, the School Inspectorate, and the Higher Education Department that deals with the special training of Nursery School, as well as with all other Elementary School teachers, is at the service of the little ones.

The initial cost is, for twenty-five children, approximately, £25 per class for furnishing a room and £25 per class for household goods, personal equipment such as overalls, tooth brushes, blankets, towels, etc., and for educational equipment, i.e., roughly £2 per head in all: alterations to premises, e.g., French windows, indoor lavatories, the supply of geysers, taps and low sinks, gas rings, making of a garden, are, of course, not included.

REASONS FOR ADOPTING THE PRINCIPLE OF ATTACHING NURSERY CLASSES TO INFANT DEPARTMENTS.

1. *No severe break in the little child's school life!*

Records of the Nursery child can be sent forward to the teacher of the next class. The child need not have a severe break when he leaves the Nursery Class, but can pass through a Transition Class till he reaches the older Infant stage. During this transition stage, it will be possible for Nursery and Infant teachers to confer and the children's training to develop rather than change abruptly.

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2. *Nursery Class Maintenance costs slightly less than that of a Nursery School.*

The average cost of maintenance of a child in a Nursery Class is a little less than that in a Nursery School. About £11 to £12 per head is the average cost in a Nursery Class. In Nursery Schools the cost per head ranges from £10 per head to £20 per head with an approximate average of about £14 per head.

3. *Influence of the little children on older scholars in Upper Departments.*

A well-organised Nursery Class attached to an Infant School has a very beneficial effect upon the teaching and training of the children in the older classes. In some Schools the Standards VI. and VII. older girls have done sewing of overalls, shoe bags, comb bags, embroidering of blankets, making of doll's clothes, etc., for their Nursery Class. In some towns boys have made little stools, doll's houses, toy carts, fret-sawn animals on wheels, etc., and a garden for their own Nursery Class. They are always glad to help put up beds, stack them away and make themselves generally useful at playtime and after school. These practices have led to friendly intimacy between various Departments, which has benefited all. The social service rendered by the older children has been particularly valuable to them.

Big brothers and sisters also bring and fetch the Nursery children to and from their Department, and by this means they get to know something of the standards of cleanliness, the brightness and kindly training that goes on in a Nursery.

4. *Parents' relation to the School Staff throughout the child's early Educational Career.*

The Nursery can bring the parents and the School

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together. Parents remain in touch with the School from the time the child is two or three years of age till he reaches the top standards. The friendly relationship between the parents and the staff which is so easily begun through the tiny child in the Nursery Class can be retained when he is an older scholar.

5. *Influence of the Nursery Class on the Infant School.*

There is a gradual permeation of the Infant School with Nursery Class principles of Child Training and higher standards of health, hygiene and happiness. During the last six years I have seen ample evidence in many Infant Schools of this beneficial value of the Nursery Class in the midst of an Infant Department.

6. *Less delay.*

Given the accommodation in the existing Elementary School the work of extending means for Nursery Education can proceed without the delay which would be necessary for finding sites and funds to build separate Nursery Schools.

REASONS FOR ESTABLISHING NURSERY SCHOOLS IN ADDITION TO NURSERY CLASSES.

1. In order to provide sufficient accommodation, Nursery Schools with several, *i.e.* four or five groups or classes of thirty to thirty-five children, may have to be organised in some congested areas of the city. In Manchester over one-third of our Infant School population consists at present of children of pre-school age, and more would be admitted at once if there was sufficient accommodation in all schools for children of this age.
2. To start free from the existing standards of Infant Education which, though steadily improving, are still hampered to some extent by traditions of the past

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which have arisen through dealing with classes of an enormous size (over sixty). The problems of the care and education of the pre-school child can be worked out on fresh lines developed from knowledge of modern psychology and hygiene. Such a Nursery School would have the advantages of a building specially adapted to the work with conditions for open-air life, meals, baths, gardening, etc. etc. They would serve as models in various centres of the city, showing the fuller standard of work that may be reached in time in all Nursery Classes.

3. A Nursery School would provide accommodation and organisation for a three-year Nursery Training Course for all children passing through it from the age of two years.

THE CHAIRMAN: I am very sorry indeed we are meeting here during the holidays of the Edinburgh Schools, because I should have liked very much to send you to a pattern of this school in Duncan Street, where we have a whole school on this plan. When Sir John Struthers came down to see what we had put up at this cheap rate, he said, "There is no reason why every school in the country ought not to be built on this method." He also did not think we had as good a climate as Manchester, but when we put the teachers into that school and gave them their log book we said, "Enter in the log book every day you have to close the doors." The Headmistress at the end of the first year brought us the log book, and only on five occasions had they to close the doors.

International Co-operation in Educational Enterprises. Summary of Address by Captain A. G.
PAPE, St Michaels, Edinburgh.

Object to secure international co-operation in Educational enterprises.

To that end I would suggest for your consideration

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that this World Federation of Educational Associations should ask the official Minister of Education in each country to procure the consent of his Government to his meeting with all other official Ministers of Education with a view to framing a graded universal system. To that end I would further suggest as to the Pre-School and Kindergarten Periods that our Conference this day be reported to the Authorities of this Federation. With the *Ideal* of a Universal Graded System the relation of the pre-school age as defined by the various countries and that of elementary education becomes clear if one ceases to classify education into elementary—public and private.

Freedom to attempt and test new developments in Educational theory and practice—without relinquishing what has proved of worth and encouragement in all pioneer work.

Schools—International—Co-Educational—Self-governing ages, ranging from two-and-a-half to seven. The period of Self-discovery “My World.” The parents, teachers, apparatus, and methods used here should help the child to develop all his faculties, fostering a growing sense of the rights of others, Rhythm—Open air.

Ages ranging from seven to fourteen—Periods of general elementary education “Our World”—here an amplified form of the methods used in the earlier period—fostering good manners, neatness, co-operation, giving through some system like the Dalton, a sound academic training in general subjects—games, self-discipline.

Danger zone — Corporal punishments — Rewards — Prizes—Competition. Ages ranging from fourteen to eighteen or twenty-one. Period of self-expression (specialised education—*i.e.*, “Their World”), according to the bent of the student; here again an amplified form of the methods used in the previous section.

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The Child (Principles—Aims—Life).

Universal truths.—The child not a new thing, but a new chapter in a book of which many chapters are already written.

The education of the child should be very largely one that seeks to give him opportunities of expression rather than to impose on him methods of development. And until it is realised that the child is an Eternal Spirit, with powers and capacities of his own, not running into a mould, but to an individual growth, that the duty of the teacher is to aid the growth, and not to try to change it; until that is understood the whole educational system is going along a wrong road and is based on a false idea. The child is preparing for life, and it is our duty to get him ready for it. Education is of value as far as it contributes a real preparation for life—for the morrow. To-morrow needs energetic men and women—enterprising, strong characters—it needs its great men, its great women—it needs its noble men, its noble women. Parents and educators cannot be of any help to the child, as far as self-education is concerned, as long as they do not set before *themselves* the problem of spiritual culture.

In the first seven years we teach mainly by example, by good manners, by personal regularity, by those basic universal truths, that whatever is thought, said or done, should be kind, true (there is no religion higher than Truth), necessary, useful, cheerful, clean. For in days to come it will be realised that the health of man is dependent upon the health of all allied evolutions.

As our duty is to deal with causes we have to consider “would-be” parents. We need so much those mothers and fathers, who procreate only to provide clean bodies for the future humanity and not for the gratification of selfish passion—parents who *live* as Servers of Humanity. For there are new sub-types coming into the world who are “Intuitive” and need all our sympathy and understanding. They come to serve.

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Such a scheme as outlined above fulfils the Ideals of this World Federation in a practical manner. Put poetically those ideals may be expressed thus—

“ From the Unreal lead us to the Real,
From Darkness lead us to Light,
From Death lead us to Immortality.”

Let us then with calm, cool, clear-eyed Courage

Get *on* with the Job

knowing that in reality no man is our enemy, no man is our friend, all alike are our teachers.

A DELEGATE, Glasgow: I want to say that there are other places besides Edinburgh, Manchester, and Detroit, where we have schemes in operation for the wellbeing of the children, and we have had them in operation for a very considerable number of years. We have not yet begun to consider whether the child is a human being or an animal. We have already had that stated for us by a great Teacher, who said, “ Of such is the Kingdom of Heaven.” We accept that basis without any further inquiry.

We have a number of nursery schools in Glasgow and a great number of nursery school children, but our nursery schools are really day boarding schools. We receive the children in these schools any time from seven in the morning, and they remain until five or six o'clock at night. They get their breakfast, dinner and tea and their sleeping accommodation as well. We find it is a social question we have to deal with, and that these nursery children come from homes where the mother perhaps is at work outside earning her livelihood, or has had to go to some infirmary or other home for special treatment and cannot give her attention to these children. We receive them from two years of age up to five and we look after them. We have a specialised teacher in charge of them in each of the schools, and we have a guardian who assists her in anything that may be re-

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garded as domestic attentions. The nurse visits daily, and the doctor comes regularly on the advice of the nurse, if the child exhibits symptoms that require attention. We have had this in operation now for ten years, with very beneficial results. Forty-five per cent. of the children, after five years of age, come in with defects more or less, and we feel that if we could get hold of the children at two or three years of age we could reduce the number of physically defective children to a negligible quantity. We think these physical defectives are an uneconomical proposition, and that if we can get these nursery classes established we can eliminate that element from the population practically altogether.

I want to say, further, that the law is very defective. The Board of Health or the Corporation Medical Authority have the power to insist upon parents looking after their children in a particular way up to one or two years of age. After that, their compulsory powers cease. From two to five there is no law dealing with that very material part of human life. If we could get the power to issue attendance orders on families where we know the housing conditions are unsatisfactory and inimical to the health of the children, on the certificate of the Medical Authority, then we could institute our nursery schools in a very much better way than at present. Until we get laws for that purpose, our nursery schools are bound to fail. I think if this great Conference could somehow induce Governments to pass legislative enactments giving us the control from two to four years of age that we could solve a great many problems. I think we are on the right lines in these matters.

The question is not the same here as in Detroit, where it seems to be the better class children that are sent to the nursery school. We go into the very poorest homes and bring the children into the school, and we link it up with their educational system. Those who are hale and

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hearty go into the ordinary schools. Those who are otherwise, are sent to a special school where their defects can be attended to.

Dr WATTIE, H.M.C.I. Schools, Glasgow: I have very great pleasure in being allowed to lift up my voice at this meeting, because I hold very strongly that there is no defect in our educational system so large or so serious as the defective provision for dealing with children between the ages of two and five. I came back in the end of last week from a visit to two of the beautiful islands in the north. I saw two of the schools there. There the children come to school to learn English as a new language. Living where they do, they have never seen a tramcar, a motor car, or a train. You may say those children are in a pitiful plight. Well, I admit some kind of pity may be due to them, but their fortune is splendid compared with the fortune of the children in the centre of our large industrial areas.

I do not think that nursery schools should be provided for all the children between the ages of two and five where they have God's own air and plenty of space to run about in and interesting things at home. In the country interesting things are always happening, and the children are not so badly off. Where nursery schools are urgently needed is where there is a large number of children living in one-room and two-room houses. These children are always in the way. There is no scope whatever for their activities. All the time they are being told to "Stop that!" and friction inside the house is inevitable. Their tempers are ruffled constantly. The poor children are thwarted. They do not get any opportunities for developing themselves.

It is for the children in the crowded areas that nursery schools are urgently needed. The reason why, I might put on two grounds. We talk a great deal about the desire of conserving the knowledge that the children have already learned by the time they are fourteen, and about

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the desirability of extending the school age to fifteen, but what we want to do is much more largely to utilise the far more valuable period between the ages of two and five. Enormous progress could be made with the children if they were placed in suitable surroundings and dealt with in an appropriate way. I put the argument on another ground which appeals to me much more strongly, and that is that at every age the creature ought to get the appropriate satisfaction and the appropriate happiness. Whatever the future may be, we would all like the child of three to be happy. These children are not happy. They are constantly being treated in an unsuitable way.

This friend of mine from Glasgow has been telling you of the splendid things that the Glasgow people are doing for the children between the ages of two and five. I have visited all, or nearly all, these nursery schools in Glasgow. They are quite good schools, but we do not have enough open space for the children to run about in. Let the provision for these young children be spacious, and as spacious as we can make it. In Glasgow we do have nursery schools, but we do not have anything more than a few samples of the kind of thing that we might have and that we ought to have. Of the million and a half children in Glasgow it is only a few hundred that are being treated in nursery schools. If I might put the argument on a considerably lower ground than the appeal to human sympathy, it would be an appeal to our patriotism. We in Scotland are falling lamentably behind England in this cardinal respect. Even in Edinburgh here we do not have any more than a few examples of the kind of thing we ought to have on a more elaborate scale.

Let me mention two things. I think every room for small children should be provided right round with suitable surfaces for drawing on. The second point is the matter of reading. Miss Drummond spoke about various kinds of activities for the children, and she did not refer to reading at all. Now, my belief is that all children

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could be taught comfortably and happily to be reading quite fluently by the time they are five. I know that educational theorists claim that reading should not be begun even at five, but that it should be postponed to about six, because it is a highly complicated intellectual operation which the small undeveloped minds of the children are not able for. I think that is simply nonsense. It depends entirely on how the problem is approached. There is a great wealth of childish literature in English which all the young children ought to know.

I visited a large Secondary School in Glasgow not very long ago. I asked the children of three of the senior classes to tell me what they knew about "Alice in Wonderland." Each class had about 50 children in it. In the three classes together there were not more than five that knew anything about it. I say these children are being wronged. There is a heap of other things the children all ought to know just as a matter of fact because they are young Scottish children. The nursery schools should be simply filled with books, and the children should be read to constantly. Read to the children and give them the books to handle, and they will soon learn to read. There is no need to worry with phonetics or anything else. They will take all the words just as they come. They will get to know the words because they are so much interested in the subject-matter itself.

Miss Cook, Japan: I certainly appreciate this opportunity to say a word for Japan, and not for Japan alone. I feel I would like to represent the Orient here. I feel I want Asia recognised as having a vital interest in what you have to do, and so my heart was stirred when we had that message from Captain Pape a few minutes ago, because I felt it brought to your attention that what you are considering is not simply of concern to us, but to those over in the other lands across the sea in Asia.

It has been my privilege for over twenty years to be engaged in kindergarten training in Japan, and the people

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of Japan are interested, as you are, in the little child, and Japan is doing a wonderful work along kindergarten lines. I think you would be surprised to know the work that is going on there in kindergarten. When the public school system was begun a little over fifty years ago, our system of education was conceived of as from kindergarten to university. When education became compulsory, the kindergarten was not included, but the idea remained, and wherever it can be provided for it is taken care of by the municipal authorities, and provision is made in all the cities and towns of Japan for a kindergarten, but, not being compulsory, it leaves room for private kindergartens too, and I feel sometimes it has been unfortunate that the whole system was not crystallised, because it is still a question and a problem.

I recall sitting in the City of Tokio in a meeting of the Kindergarten Association, where there were 300 Japanese kindergarteners gathered considering the questions that you are considering this afternoon, and you would have been surprised to see the number of men among those kindergarteners. We have in Japan a Christian Kindergarten Union also, that represents something between 150 and 200 Christian Kindergartens, but there is this other organisation as well, and we are standing together studying the problems and seeking the light and the truth. I want to ask that you keep in mind not only Japan but the whole of the Orient.

THE CHAIRMAN: We think the best plan would be to make a small committee of the people who are interested in it, and to frame together a resolution and then put it to you at the last meeting here.

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Friday, 24th July.

Miss MARGARET DRUMMOND, Edinburgh, in the Chair.

THE CHAIRMAN: As Lady Mackenzie was not able to be present herself, I was appointed to take the chair to-day. The first item on our programme is that which deals with co-operation between parents and teachers. I will call upon Miss Chignell, the Principal of the Nursery School in Bradford, to give us her paper on the co-operation of parents and teachers in this matter.

The Education of Parents as one Activity of the
Nursery School.

Address by Miss M. E. CHIGNELL, Bradford.

MISS CHIGNELL: One has a good deal of diffidence in speaking on a subject which is extremely complex, and has many aspects, any one of which may have been explored by members of this audience. I can only give to you what has been a personal experience, and begin at the genesis of that experience.

Some years ago, I came to the conclusion that work in the Primary School would be more satisfactory if more attention were focussed on the education of the baby, and after study under Dr Truby King, Dr Eric Pritchard and Dr Montessori, I accepted an offer from Miss Macmillan to attempt to put into practice some of her educational concepts in a Nursery School.

At that time the war was in progress and Miss Macmillan had received a grant from the Minister of Munitions to receive the children of the young mothers, who were working in the shell factories. I mention this to explain the constitution of our first Nursery School in Deptford. The age of the children varied from one month to seven years of age, and the babies were received at 6.30 a.m., and left us at 6 p.m. for home.

At this time we were in close relationship with the

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mothers, but it was obviously impossible for them to apply at home the ideas on Infant Education with which they had become familiar at the Nursery. We were given ample opportunities to study the baby from the first (if a baby fell ill we kept it all night, until it recovered), and the experiences thus gained were recorded and related and compared with observations made later in the child's Nursery life.

After the Armistice we received children from two to eight or nine years of age only, and the Nursery School assumed a definite character.

The parents of the children had been led to believe that the Nursery was open for them to visit always and they used this privilege. During the war it was a famous visiting place for men home on leave from the front. We in return had access always to their homes. They became interested in the work and during personal, and impromptu talks with the mothers, the questions of food, clothing, bad-temper, etc., often arose for discussion. A few of them came finally in the evening for health talks, and sewing, and we did hard work by helping in the conversion of adult garments into suitable and hygienic garments for children.

In the autumn of 1920, I went to Bradford to organise open-air Nursery Schools in that city. Here, owing to the generosity of administrators, we obtained the buildings for which we asked, and in one school one-quarter of an acre for garden. The parents of the children in the first open-air Nursery School in Bradford were asked to meet us for tea and conference during the week of opening; and to them we explained the aims of the Nursery School, and asked for their co-operation. A monthly meeting of this sort was suggested at first, and at each meeting the aims of the Nursery School were expounded. The numbers grew, so that a weekly meeting was arranged, and no opportunity was ever lost of

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saying a word in season to parents calling for children in the evening. An open invitation was given to bring interested strangers to visit the Nursery.

The talks on health led to many inquiries, about food and clothes, and finally we found it necessary to arrange fortnightly addresses on health and education, and a weekly needlework class.

We had encouraged the fathers of the children to visit the Nursery whenever possible, and two of these told me that they could not get all the benefit from the literature distributed in the homes because they could not read well enough. They asked if a reading class could be formed. This was done—four men joined at first, and the class now has an average attendance of twenty men and women. The work of the class is not confined to reading, the opportunity has been used to try to give to these people a conception of what the term education implies. A few of them asked if they could be given addresses on education. These began in January of this year, and when it was suggested that the class might be suspended for the summer, they were unanimous in begging for its continuance, so that the last talks on education were given on July 15th, 1925.

The parents have now formed an Association with a membership of one hundred and fifty men and women. There is an Executive Committee with officers. The aims of the Association are said to be :

“The establishment and extension of the Nursery School System of Education for Infants, in the City of Bradford, the accumulation of funds for the education of parents in its methods. By this means it is hoped that the Nursery School may become a centre of culture for the district in which it is placed.”

In connection with the Nursery we have a Girls' Club with sixty members. The members are relations of

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children in the Nursery School, and the ages vary from eleven to eighteen years of age. Definite instruction is given to the Club in:—

Music. Vocal and instrumental—reading and speaking—rhythmic and dramatic expression.

Mothercraft. Including care of new born baby—preparation of food—training in good habits, etc.

Dancing. The dancing is mainly traditional.

Games. The dramatisation of stories read; songs, etc.; Tennis and Net Ball.

Gardening and Needlework.

Many of the parents are sufficiently interested to attend when these subjects are taught, and afterwards help to teach. A violin class was started three years ago, the pupils are parents, and boys and girls. We now have a small orchestra, which serves the various social functions arranged from time to time.

The dancing although mainly traditional includes the dances of all countries, the dresses are made by the girls and mothers in the needlework classes, and the hunt for the costume of the period and the country involves some study of history. The Association has a small fund in the bank, which has been acquired by individual and collective efforts. Some of this has been expended on the equipment for a Tennis Court, which has been erected on part of the large grass space available at Princeville Nursery School. The Tennis Club has proved a valuable social asset, as those parents who do not play have brought their work, or a book and watched the others during the pleasant summer of this year.

The large garden and grass plots at Princeville Nursery School have been cultivated entirely at the expense and by the labour of the parents, brothers and sisters of the little children.

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In reviewing this work, one's experience has been that the poorest but quite respectable parents were not at all happy, socially at first. They appeared to have no topics of conversation but their ailments, and the difficulty of getting food and clothes; and their mirth was always strained and hysterical. Their whole conception of work was of something imposed on them by an arbitrary power, external to them, something which it behoved one to endure doggedly, and which just a few happy people managed to evade. The idea that work is an expression of one's being, that apart from the question of food, clothing and shelter, we literally do not *live* without expressing ourselves in work of some sort, had never entered their heads. The conviction is a settled one with me that the manual workers of this country, and probably others, go about in a perpetual mental fog to the end of their days; they cannot use their faculties and so do not know how to live. It seems to me that the emotional nature is not stimulated and disciplined, and so the creative impulse becomes atrophied. I am forced to the conclusion that this is the fault of the schools.

For this reason we surround the baby in the Nursery School with beauty, from the beginning, and during infancy we saturate him in the arts. Our main work as teachers is to give him this environment and then watch that in the process of growth no obstacles impede the advance of the spirit.

The first appeal to parents was made in order to get them to associate with us, and understand the methods of training children, so that they might use them, and tell others and thus make a Nursery School public, but it was found that the very consciousness of the people had to be changed before they could comprehend what was needed. To this end the education of the parents proceeds. To me it matters very little what subject is

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taught if it helps to weaken prejudice and superstition; if it calls forth energy, and succeeds in stabilising power.

The course in education given to the mothers and fathers has consisted of simple talks on Instincts, Interest, Attention, Habits, the training in language and the training of the Sensory and Motor Systems.

The talks have been fully illustrated by use of the Montessori apparatus, and the parents have been thoroughly interested in using that apparatus in a course of lessons, just as the little children do.

The reading lessons have included dramatic recitations, and this has led to the performance of little plays, for which the girls and parents make the dresses and properties. All these efforts are merely the beginnings of things; but the motto of the Association is :

“The difference between the difficult and the impossible is—that one takes longer than the other,”

and a new consciousness arises when we realise that, “Education is a progress which continues from the cradle to the grave, and should be the unending recreation of its subject.”

THE CHAIRMAN: We have listened with deepest interest to Miss Chignell’s paper. There are various points I should like to make in regard to it, but we must go right on with the speakers. The work that Miss Chignell has been doing with the parents is of tremendous interest to many of us, and the point will come up again in connection with the resolutions that are to be submitted to the Congress as a whole as coming from this Section.

Address by Rev. Canon LAURIE, Edinburgh.

Rev. Canon LAURIE: I might first perhaps sketch what our particular job is. We are dealing with slum children. We are dealing with only fifty children; we do not admit more. Our view is that it is character

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that matters, and that the age of five is too early for the children to go into the great world of an elementary school. We therefore keep our children to the age of eight or nine. It makes the school much more expensive as we have to meet the requirements of the Government for the first two standards of the elementary schools. It means that we have the children for six years from the age of two-and-a-half or three up to eight or nine. In those years we can make our mark. Then we aim at isolating the children from their homes. That sounds unkind, but it is essential. That is to say, we do not isolate them entirely, but we isolate them as far as is possible. I am quite aware of the reaction of even a bad mother or a bad father upon children. I am aware that the worst parents have a very sympathetic and soft side—and advisedly I say soft side—to their children, and one dare not minimise that. At the same time I am dealing with a class of children that requires to be, as far as possible, separated from the normal home influences. Therefore what we do is to have the children from early morning; give them their meals in the place during the afternoon; let the little ones sleep in the afternoon, keep them for play centre, and send them home about six or half-past six.

Then the important point I want to bring before you is this, namely, the relation between us and the parents. We try to make the whole of those fifty children's parents into a Mothers' Guild. We get the majority. We do not get all. There are some who never will respond. In this Mothers' Guild which meets every second week, we do our best—I think not altogether without success—to interest the parents. We have four rules. All those rules they have to promise to obey, at the fortnightly meetings. One of the meetings is social, the next is more grave and serious. At that fortnightly meeting they are always reminded of these rules. At the social meeting they meet with all the staff and have

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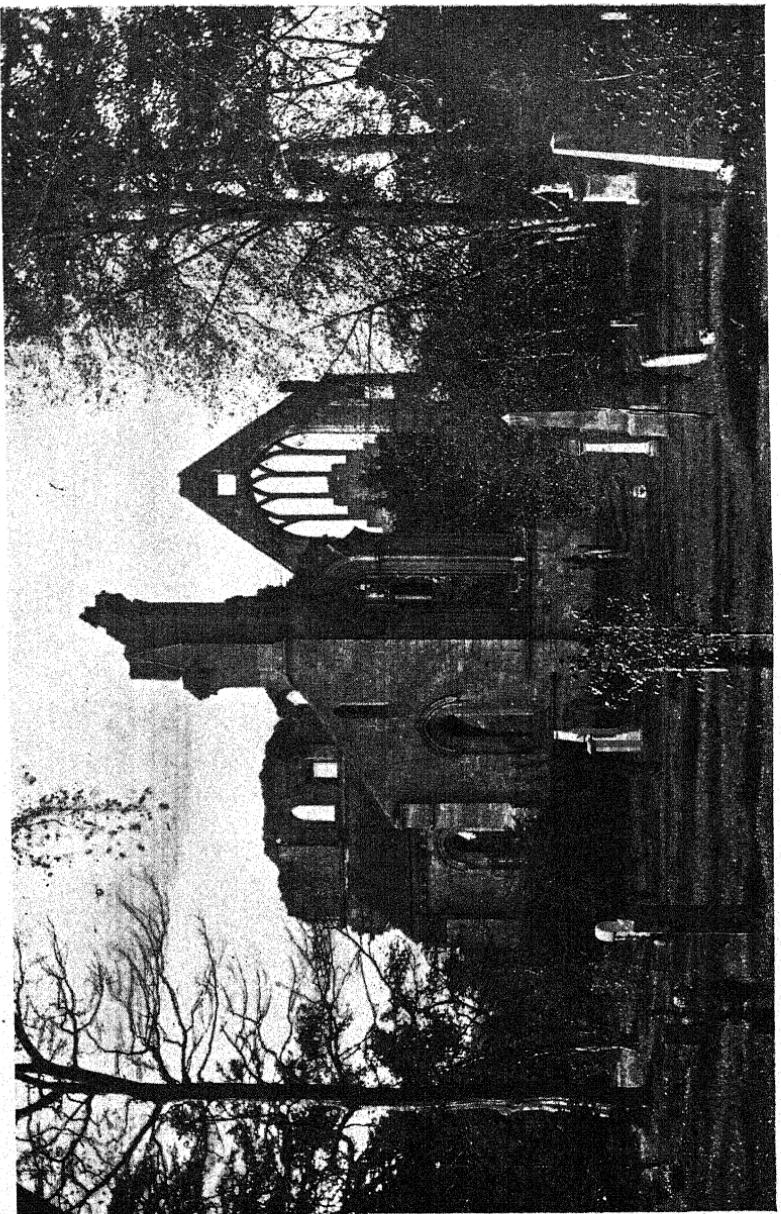
a little music and a cup of tea and talk over the affairs of the school and their children. At the graver meeting I always talk to them on one or more points of the aim and ideal that we have, and I rub in one or other of the four rules. The four rules are: (1) That the children should be sent to bed at a fixed hour; (2) That they should say their prayers and their grace; (3) That they should go to Sunday School and their children's service; and (4)—and this is very general, of course—That they should see or hear nothing in the home that would be detrimental. Of course, the last rule, obviously, is too general, but it does give a point of departure in speaking to the parents.

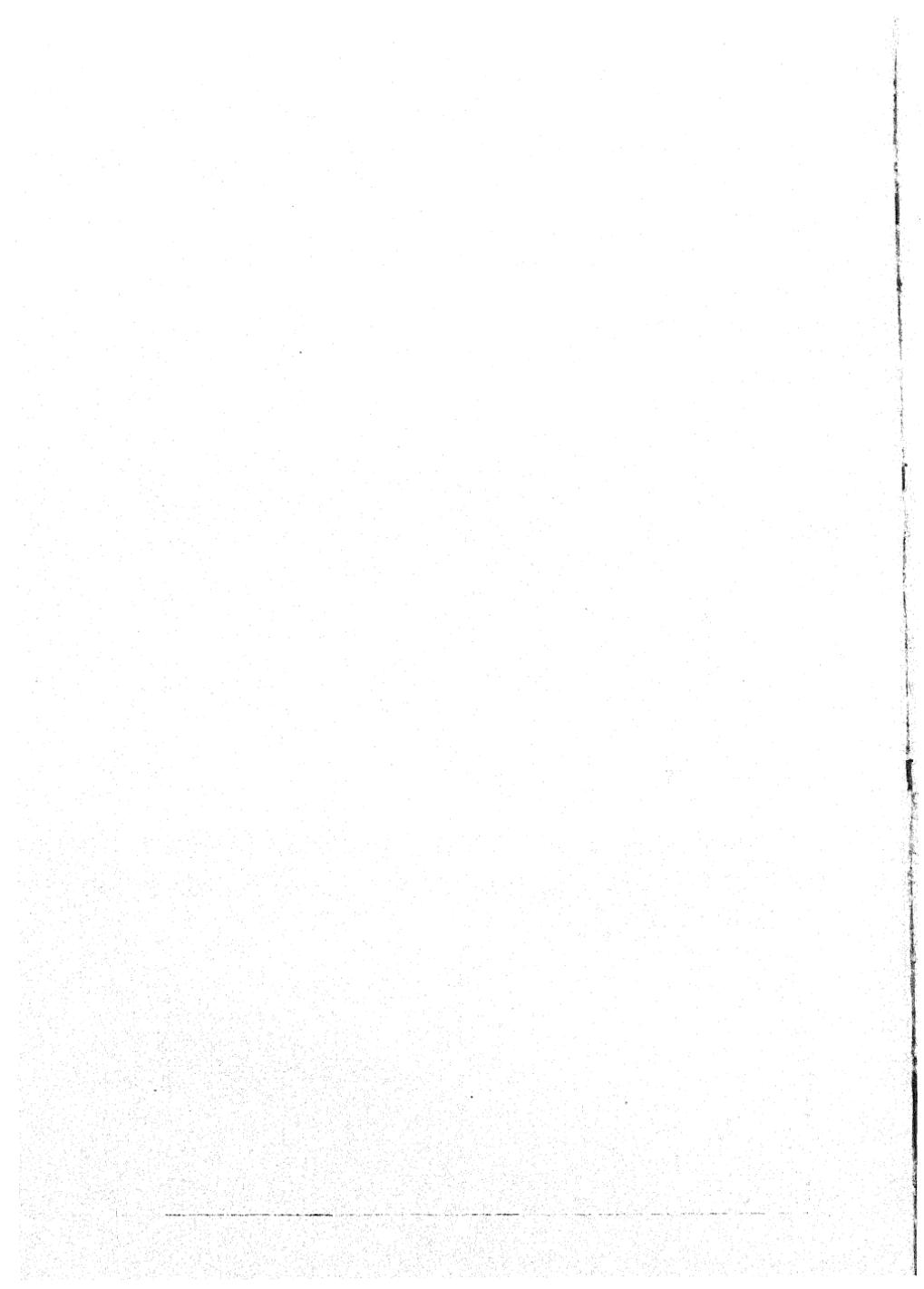
Well, one finds that this has a real reaction on the parents. Every time I talk to them, which is once a month, I always read over the rules. I make a sort of examination with them all about keeping the rules in a general way, and do my best to rub it in. The children are Pioneers of manners, of cleanliness, of even religion, in their homes. They reprove—and you may have different notions about this—their elder brothers and sisters for not saying "Thank you" and that sort of thing. One child not very long ago refused to put on a dirty pinafore at the end of the week when the time came for a clean pinafore. A father came not long ago asking if he might have the terms of the children's prayers; he wanted to see they were done properly. This experiment has been going on for pretty near eighteen years. I have watched the children grow up, and I have watched their influence upon the home. I have no hesitation whatever in saying that the influence has been profound, just with that class that needs it most. They care for their children. Absolutely indifferent to conventional morals as they may be, they do have a great regard for the immature little waifs and strays, and they play up to our rules. They do not play up to them constantly, consistently, and completely, of course. They are very

[Photo by Valentine & Sons, Ltd., Dundee.]

DRYBURGH ABBEY

Burial Place of Sir Walter Scott.





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flotsam and jetsam individuals, but they are influenced profoundly both by the effect of the Guild and by the influence of the children upon their homes.

Dr JESSIE WHITE, London: In the first place I should like to draw attention to an ambiguity in the term "pre-school education." I think it ought to have been "pre-compulsory education," because that is what we are really concerned with. I am very sympathetic to the Nursery Schools, but we have had already so many agencies connected with the pre-compulsory age that I think someone ought to bring this forward in connection with this point.

In England we have crèches. We call them day nurseries. They were established, in the first place, not for the good of the children but for the good of the parents, for the relief of working mothers. The children are taken to the crèche for the whole day. What we have got to do in connection with those crèches is to emphasise the educational side, but we do not want people to think that the Nursery School is the only agency for doing this work. What we want to do is to work as one body considering from all points of view the pre-compulsory education, and we have to consider the relation of the parents to all these different kinds of institutions.

In a great many schools in London the bottom classes in elementary schools are doing nursery school work, and it is not fair to all those teachers in London, who have made great sacrifices, not to consider them also.

The crèches do their utmost to keep in close relation with the mothers. The matron of the crèche always visits all the homes. She knows the children not only in the crèche but also in the home. In spite of what Canon Laurie says about the good effect of this Guild, I did not like the idea of the children being discussed in a body. The movement in education is towards individual relations, the relations between the teacher and the individual on one side, and I think it should be the same

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between the teacher and one parent. Another thing about the crèches is that they are so careful about the children that the mothers even take home the same kind of milk on the Friday night or Saturday, so that the children will not have a change of milk at the week-end.

One word about the elementary schools in London and these teachers that are really nobility itself. The London County Council has not until just recently given any Montessori material, and this apparatus in many schools was bought by the teachers themselves. I do not want their work to be overlooked. The parents bring their children to the elementary school, and there ought to be some arrangement by which in bad weather they do not stand outside; there ought to be a parents' lobby. The head mistress sees them every day, and there is not the slightest doubt that the effect of a really hygienic public school department is to raise the standard of the parents. In the elementary schools there is a field of work which you are in danger of losing if you have a separate Nursery School.

Rev. Canon LAURIE: May I correct a misapprehension. Obviously we do not discuss the children or the mothers in anything like a general atmosphere. Ordinary good taste should suggest we keep the children's peccadillos and the parents' peccadillos to ourselves. I meant we discussed the ideals and objects, and anything that has happened in the public life, and that sort of thing.

A DELEGATE from Bradford: I would like to supplement what was said by Miss Chignell about Bradford. Bradford runs two of the finest open-air schools in the home country. Those schools were secured by the pioneers of education, the I.L.P. worked to get those schools erected. The schools in England are supposed to be entirely social with a social outlook. The school of which I was the head began in a slum district, but it was not very long before parents of well-to-do children found out how excellent these schools were, and they began

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to send their children too and also to help the children of the lower classes. Frequently I found one of the parents was an employer and he found work in his factory for the parent of the less fortunate children.

We do develop a democratic spirit. We found that it was hopeless to buy toys for the Nursery School from any shop; they were always breaking. So in talking with the parents they suggested making the toys themselves. They also provided flowers and did the gardening. As the school is a kind of centre, the fathers and mothers can come down and enjoy that centre for themselves. The mothers also have a Sick Club. The women themselves visit each other, and also visit any sick child so long as it has not got anything infectious. We have also holiday funds. I do not know how the workhouse system is evolved in other cities, but in Bradford we have separate homes for children under the Poor Law, but some of the children cannot be boarded out, and the workhouse authorities have been induced to send their babies, who would otherwise have the stamp of an institution upon them, to the nursery schools. So the poor little Poor Law babies have a chance with other people.

The Training of Nursery School Teachers.

Address by Miss LILLIAN DE LISSA, Principal,
Gipsy Hill Training College, London.

Miss DE LISSA: In the short time allocated to me for my paper it will not be possible to give a very comprehensive lecture on the training of teachers—a subject far too-many-sided to be crammed into fifteen minutes or so. All I shall try to do is to indicate the lines on which the training of nursery school teachers could profitably be developed.

Looking back over the history of education it is interesting to note how great a change has come into the training of teachers during recent years. Methods of

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teachers' training are naturally limited by ideals of education. When education was regarded as a process of filling empty vessels the method of training teachers had two distinct characteristics: first, that of supplying the teacher with such information as she would require to pass on to children, and second, that of making her a good disciplinarian. To be a good disciplinarian in those days meant to have the power of keeping children quiet and docile—by fair means or foul—during the process of filling them up. Consequently all means of coercion and of repressing natural activity and interest had to be studied.

Education emerged from this stage in time, and was considered as a means of "drawing out." The teacher who could hold children's interest and draw them out as though they were elastic, was one step farther advanced, but still in that period *education was regarded as something that had to be done to the child.*

Happily education is no longer regarded in this light, but as a self-active process. The child is no longer considered as a vase to be filled, or clay to be moulded—but as a force to be directed. He is no longer regarded as the passive agent, but as a vital spiritual thing seeking for the means by which he can achieve the fulness of life, by which he can find and fully realise himself.

It is recognised that natural laws governing his will, if not thwarted, bring about in the fulness of time all those powers that characterise the human being—not only bone, muscle, teeth, hair, specialised sense organs, but also thought, feeling, creative energy, reason, imagination, aspiration, reverence. It is recognised that the potentiality of perfect man lies enfolded within the embryo of every human being, and that education must be the process by which this potentiality is stimulated, nourished and given opportunity for growth. It must be

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the process of so adjusting the environment of every child that it provides all the conditions and nurture most favourable to full-sided growth.

Doubtless many of you are thinking this is simply Froebel over again. For many years we have accepted Froebel in theory, but the world to-day is beginning to put his principles into practice. In no department of education is this more noticeable than in the new attitude of the teacher, which is as that of a gardener to his plants, loosening the soil, enriching it and providing all the conditions needful in producing full-sided growth. No gardener tries to grow his plants—he trusts to the life force within each seed to see to that, but he knows that by co-operation and providing the right environment he can help to improve the species. So too does the teacher of to-day no longer try to mould her children, but trusting to the life force within each child, becomes the servant of life, and provides the environment in which these human buds unfold and grow as the Divine Horticulturist intends. In this process—earliest years—the seedling stage is obviously most important. To start life straight is the secret of inward happiness, and also to a great extent the secret of health and power, and the training of teachers for the years under five is of the very greatest importance. What line should it follow?

Since teachers are to work with living and growing things, it seems to me that basic to all other study must be an investigation into the nature of the living organisms, into the laws governing their development and the conditions most favourable to health and full-sided life. No longer should subject matter and curricula have the chief place in a training college course, but the chief place should be given to the study of children, and their physical reactions to environment. By reason of the complex nature of the human being the study must be approached from various angles. Let us consider some of the most important lines of approach.

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The hygiene of the body is a wide study, including all the conditions that make for health or cause ill-health—fresh air, light, sunshine, clothes, food, free activity, sleep. Some of the knowledge can be gained by lectures, but it is most desirable that students should have experience in all such institutions as are working for health—open-air clinics, hospitals, out-patient departments. The study should extend back through infancy to pre-natal life, as the nursery school teacher becomes the friend and confidant of the mother, and can thus do much to influence her in the care and health of the infant.

Another line of research is the study of the effect of bodily conditions on personality. Medical science is proving more and more that natures can be changed through the unhealthy action of the glands. How many false judgments are made by schools, and how frequently punishments are loaded upon those who have been already heavily punished by nature simply through our ignorance of bodily conditions that are causing abnormalities of character! These queer characteristics often pass unnoticed in childhood, where there is no special care of them, and no knowledge of these dangers. But a wise and understanding teacher who knows how to recognise abnormalities can secure medical attention that will check the trouble before it becomes fixed and has its devastating effect on character.

There are other causes, too, that make or unmake health—best summarised as psychological. These must also be studied by the teacher in training.

Probably everyone in my audience knows of cases of children who, with all the ordinarily accepted conditions of health, are weak and frail simply because of the bad psychological atmosphere. Children who are ailing frequently for the need of a little wholesome neglect. I know a mother, a most delightful woman—a graduate, and sensible in everything except this one point, and she spends her life fussing. A shower of rain during the children's

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walk, a sudden north wind, indigestion or epidemic—it is extraordinary what a number of things there are to fear if we once admit them to consciousness. The older I get the more do I realise that we suffer from nothing as much as from our own fears. Her children, who are having everything to make them healthy and strong, are so nervous about themselves that they are always ailing! “Darling, I don’t think you’ll sleep to-night, you are so excited, but take your picture-book up, and you can put on the light and look at it if you can’t sleep.” What a suggestion with which to send the child to bed: need I add that he *is* a bad sleeper? That is typical of the kind of dangerous suggestions that she is always giving. That is what I call a bad psychological atmosphere—it is one that makes people quite literally “enjoy bad health.”

The effect of suggestion on health and on personality generally is being more and more recognised by the medical and educational professions, and we are beginning to learn the overwhelming importance of infantile impressions; how, for example, babyish fears and griefs may develop underground, and produce at last an unrecognisable growth poisoning the body and mind of the adult. But happily good is at least as potent as ill: what terror, a hideous sight, an unloving nurture may do for evil, a happy impression, a helpful attitude, a beautiful sight and loving nurture will do for good. Moreover, we can bury good seeds in the unconscious minds of children and reasonably look forward to the fruit. This the teacher must learn how to do during her training; thus does the truth come clearly. Medical knowledge, knowledge of physical hygiene, though of enormous importance, are in themselves not enough if the growth of the child is to be balanced and all-sided.

Psychological study and knowledge are necessary if the nursery teacher is wisely to guide the child through all the many stages which he must pass in the early years. Unwise teaching or interference with

the successive stages may produce one or other of two evils—either through snubbing, discouraging and unsympathetic attitude the interest is driven underground, and thence re-emerges in some twisted, deformed craving or complex that saps all strength and deforms character, or through over-indulgence and over-stimulation the child's growth is arrested in the stage at which he receives it, and there he remains never to emerge, growing up in body but remaining infantile in character. Do you not all know some adults who are still but three years old? The Eastern potentate type is, alas, far too common—the adult who at the age of maturity still regards himself as the centre of the world and everyone else as being there to minister to his comfort! This form of self-centred interest belongs to the stage when the child is just becoming conscious of himself as a separate entity. At the tender age to which he belongs he imagines that everything is planned for his enjoyment, and he not only claims things as "mine" with an imperious gesture, but expects everyone to do things for him; but where growth is healthy, he gradually emerges from this stage, and as his social sense develops he gains a sense of fellowship and gets himself into a truer relationship with his fellows. But the man who stays at this stage, though adult in body, is often a source of real danger to the community as well as a dreadful bore to live with. Nursery school teachers must study this aspect of growth, know the stage and how to treat it, and know how to recognise signs of psychic ill-health.

There are other elements that have to be taken into consideration if good health is to be assured—the opportunity given for intellectual and emotional activity. The development of the mind and its powers is, as I indicated at the beginning of this paper, just as much a part of nature's plan for the development of the human being as are teeth and hair and the upright position. To so starve all this side of life that growth is laboured and stunted

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is to cause inharmony, which means ill-health. Thus in the ideal environment there must be food for the mind as well as for the body, opportunity for the exercise of developing mental functions as well as freedom for physical activity, suitable material for sense experience, for comparing and contrasting and judging, for decisions and stimulating activities and investigations which must be considered to be as much an hygienic requirement as educational requisition. We should, in point of fact, not separate the two : education should cover mind, body and spirit, and hygiene should embrace the growth and harmony of a complete human being. If, during her training, the teacher studies mental evolution and the works of the great educationalists and psychologists who have specially studied the characteristics and requirements of the undeveloped mind, her nursery is likely to be equipped with suitable toys and apparatus, and the children left free for joyous play with them.

One other element, the place of emotion in health, must be considered. I have already mentioned the effect on character; but there is another aspect, its effect on the circulation and general tone of health. We probably have all experienced the physical effects of fear, and know how it kills appetite, makes one listless and devitalised, sometimes to the extent of faintness. We must never forget that a little child can suffer from fears as we do—worse fears really, as he has not the escape of reason that we adults have. Fear lowers vitality, it depresses circulation, and can cause real physical degeneracy if the child is constantly subject to it. All appeals to fear and all suggestion of fear should be rigidly excluded from the environment of the little child, because of its poisonous effect on body and mind. What used to be done by fear must to-day be done by love, for the health-giving effect of love and happiness is even greater than the poisoning due to fear. The psychology or hygiene of the emotions should be prominent in the teacher's course, for a clear

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understanding of these matters is of the first importance to those who are dealing with life in its earliest years. At the same time there should be a culture of her own emotional life through a wise study of the arts, and care should be taken to preserve in each student the child-like heart. This child-likeness shows itself in spontaneity, in the ability to be instantly and intensely capable of joy, love, pity, reverence, and as quickly normal again. It is these qualities that bring us very near to little children, and all teachers should try to prevent the prison walls from closing upon them, to keep ever children at heart with the "spirit yet streaming from the waters of baptism, believing in love, believing in the loveliness, believing in belief." We must also keep the capacity for wonder awake in our souls.

How are these things to be achieved in training? In my experience students who have approached the line of research that I have indicated through a wisely-planned course in biology, have brought to their study of children a scientific spirit of humility and open-mindedness, a wider and more balanced judgment than those who have not had such a course. The reason is they have learned to observe exactly, to record the observations accurately, and to consider the relationship of one observed fact to another. The observation of living organisms also helps to form humility of spirit, habits of patience and trust, and a willingness to await nature's own time to bring about the changes and growth, and not to be over-anxious to stimulate growth in any one direction.

It is profitable, too, to have a gardening course in this connection: no nursery school is complete without a garden in which all can take an active interest. In a garden children can be induced to take an interest in natural things with that quietness, attention and delight which is the beginning of spiritual contemplation as well as the conditions under which nature reveals her best secrets. The teacher cannot guide or stimulate this in

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her little ones (an all-important step in developing spiritual consciousness) unless in her own soul she responds to the great spirit of all life and knows some degree of oneness with it. This spiritual consciousness is born and cultivated in various ways, and I am sure that an introduction to biology in conjunction with a gardening course helps, provided the course gives leisure and opportunity for browsing over facts and being much out-of-doors with an open and care-free mind. Is it really possible to give such a training as this? Yes, and no. The college can indicate the direction, but the student must train herself, and by greater means than her own: all that college can do is to set an immortal soul a little on its way.

Dr JESSIE WHITE, London : I did not gather clearly from Miss de Lissa whether there was any opportunity for the teacher actually to interest herself in the progress of one child to start with, and from that knowledge so gained increase her knowledge of the technique of managing a number. It seems to me that the technique of managing a number of children on individual lines requires special training. What is the method of giving this training for managing a number of children up to, say, forty or forty-five, on the lines of individual teaching?

Miss DE LISSA : I obviously could not go into the question of methods. I thought they were so generally understood that it was not necessary. I spoke of the introduction to child study, which is the introduction by biology, which does not eliminate child study. Child study is now carried on generally through the college by the teacher adopting a child and making a detailed record of this child and of everything he expresses. I think that is so generally done in all training colleges for all teachers, that I do not feel it necessary to develop that point. A teacher who has been trained for this sort of work will spend many hours in nursery schools and get the habit of working with two or three children, and

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gradually, as the need arises, take charge of a group. In nursery schools it is nearly all individual work; you don't force the children to come together and control and manage a great number. We are not forcing them. It is a very different matter where the children are free to stay or go as they wish.

Miss ELEANOR HOPE JOHNSON, U.S.A.: I am teaching Child Psychology, but I have had connection with the schools from the very outset, and there seems to be the opposite difficulty where teachers are trained early to deal with groups. How is it possible to get into these training schools a more intensive study of the individual? It is a matter of interesting the heads of training schools in the other methods of training. Is there a good way of introducing the subject?

THE CHAIRMAN: The point seems to be this, that in the training schools you know, the teachers are taught to deal with the children as groups, and not to deal with them as individuals?

Miss JOHNSON—Yes.

THE CHAIRMAN: Perhaps the truth is that we should direct our efforts to increase the knowledge of people who are in authority, with regard to the education of children and teachers. I think we should all work to increase the knowledge of the needs of the children, and to convince people that little children should be treated as individuals.

THE CHAIRMAN: You will find that a good many of our ideas have been focussed and brought together in the Resolutions which have been discussed by our small committee and which are now going to be laid before this meeting by Miss Edna White, of Detroit.

Note :—Papers contributed by Dr Tsai, Chancellor of Peking University, and Professor Bridges, of M'Gill University, Montreal, too late to be included in the programme, will be found on pages 127-132.

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MISS EDNA WHITE, Detroit: I think we must all realise the difficulties in presenting Resolutions that must be rather general in character, because they are applicable to many areas, and we cannot be too specific, particularly in the first session of this Group. The Committee presents the following :—

The Pre-School Section of the World Federation of Education Associations submits the following resolutions for the consideration of the Plenary Session :—

- (1) That in view of the supreme importance of the first years of childhood, provision should be made in every educational system for a specialised education suitable to the needs of this period.
- (2) That such education, whether given in the home or in special groups, should include the formation of desirable physical habits, mental attitudes, and character traits, in an environment conducive to freedom, health, and the joy of living.
- (3) That such education should be in charge of persons specially trained for the purpose both on the mental and physical side.
- (4) That this education, if carried on in special groups, must be in close co-operation with the parents.
- (5) That since the welfare of any nation depends upon the full development of its children, funds should be available for the pre-school period as well as for subsequent periods.
- (6) That in view of the fact that much investigation has still to be made of the laws of growth, mental and physical, of the young child, every encouragement should be given to research in this field.
- (7) That in view of the foundational character of

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education in the early years, and in view of the fact that research and experiment in this field are being actively carried on in many countries dealing with children under five, the Pre-School Group respectfully request that this Section of the Conference be continued as an integral part of the Conference.

(8) That a Committee be appointed to prepare for the next Conference, first, by making known the findings of this Conference, and, second, by finding information with regard to certain activities in all countries.

THE CHAIRMAN: You will see these Resolutions are of a very general character. They will be read again and put to the meeting.

(The foregoing Resolutions were put to the meeting and adopted.)

THE CHAIRMAN: These Resolutions will go forward as from this Group, and they will be discussed in the Plenary Session.

Miss EDNA WHITE: I think the Plenary Session should be asked that the proceedings of this Section be printed as fully as possible.

THE CHAIRMAN: As part of the Congress Report, and so that the Delegates interested and active in this Group may have copies of it on payment of a slight fee to cover the cost of printing. Could we include the Chinese paper that we have not had the pleasure of hearing? Is that motion seconded?

(Carried.)

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A Proposal concerning the Extension of the Nursery School and the Establishment of a Maternity House for Expectant Mothers: a Paper contributed by Y. P. TSAI, LL.D., Chancellor, Peking University, China.

The system of modern education of different countries after a course of expansion and modification from primitive methods of training, which were undoubtedly of great variety, has been developed most fully in the direction of its upper limit. Genuine attention has also constantly been attracted to various schemes promoted by educators of far-reaching view and rare experience, which provide an adequate opportunity for children of pre-school age, and, through this opportunity, aim at a higher level of the children's physical and mental growth. The belief in the necessity of bringing home to all parents the enormous importance of the right training and care of the pre-school child found expression in the opening of Nursery Schools, Kindergartens, and other schools on lines similar to Montessori's. There are, however, certain children who even under these favourable circumstances seem unlikely to profit. This disability some early educationists attributed to the hereditary factor. By scientific treatment, such as is indicated by Eugenics, it became possible to eliminate the evil taint by preventing those persons who were suffering from serious disease from being married. There have since been promising indications of improvement, but how far it is carried out so as to affect the offspring is a complicated question. Neglect during the first two or three years after birth certainly prejudices later education. Moreover, the absolute carelessness on the part of the mother about herself during the pregnant period robs the embryo child more seriously of his natural growth. Maternity work and child welfare work—especially during the first few years—should, it appears to us, because of

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their many aspects, bring together a considerable number of willing recruits. Indeed, the grave disadvantage of this gap in child care is too serious a handicap in child education.

With these points in mind, I am sorry to say that our present educational methods are not completely fitted to strengthen and develop the physical and mental constitutions of our young people. First of all, I should like to state in the form of a proposal, that the period of Nursery School should begin immediately after the birth of the child. This may raise a further question. Is it desirable that children should quit home and enter the Nursery School so early? The feeling of the times certainly is that children will benefit very greatly by being placed under special medical supervision at this early age. Early guidance and preventive treatment may eliminate certain defects altogether. In American and European countries, the rate of infantile mortality has for a generation gradually fallen—a fact which is attributed to greater intelligence and sense of responsibility in regard to elementary education. In other lands, *e.g.*, China, the rate stands high, especially in the case of ignorant and lavish parents, and little has hitherto been done to decrease the evil. Other problems, on the side of the parents, such as bad accommodation, constant change of employment, discontented feeling, irritable temperament, and other human worries over ordinary affairs, must affect the mental health of the young child. Therefore, in all countries it is most desirable that nursery care should be extended from two or three years of age backwards to the day of birth, and that further provision should be made for little children as regards nutrition, treatment of early defects, rudimentary physical, mental and social training. The only difficulty—theoretically at least—is the question of financial support. But why within a reasonable time should there not be started a few experimental

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Baby Nursery Schools supported by the State in different countries for the solution of the urgent problem of the physical and educational welfare of the pre-school child?

The second point I am bringing before you, also in the form of a proposal, is the founding of a Maternity House for pregnant mothers. In one sense, it is again a question of maternal care from pre-school to pre-birth, and we approach this also from an educational point of view. But before passing on to the main issue, I think the point which we are now making, can be illustrated by one or two quotations from ancient and modern thinkers. The German philosopher, Schopenhauer, was reported to have said that a child inherited his will-power from his father and his intellectual power from his mother. He has also added that if the element the child was expected to inherit from his mother was fine and excellent, but, at the same time, the element from his father was undesirable, the child might in some selected environment be equally well brought up and trained to be an exceptional scholar or good man. In China the education for the mother in the care of children appeared as early as one thousand years ago. The orientation of this kind of education was exemplified by the mother of a King called Wang, who was very virtuous. In a famous biography, edited by the distinguished scholar, Liu-Hsong, it is stated that "When Princess Tae-Jin was pregnant with King Wang, her eyes looked on no improper sight, her ears listened to no licentious sound, and her lips uttered no word of pride. When the King was born he was intelligent and sage, so that when his mother taught him one thing, he learned a hundred things, and in the end he became the founder of the Chow Dynasty. The superior man (the shrewd observer) will believe and say that Tae-Jin, the Princess, might have commenced the instruction of her child while the latter was yet in the womb." (Quoted from She-king, Part IV., Book I., translated by Dr Legge.) Similar de-

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scriptions of King Wang can be found in many Chinese Classics, and among them one poem runs as follows:—

Jin, the second of the Princess Che.
From (the domain of) Yin-Shang,
Came to be married to the Prince of Chow,
Both she and King Ke were entirely virtuous,
(Then) Tae-Jin became pregnant,
And gave birth to our King Wang.

Whether the above-quoted statements will stand or fall upon scientific examination, it is generally believed that there is some truth in them. Although medical science has refused to countenance inherited diseases, and although biology and psychology emphasise transformation and suggestion in early childhood instead of inheritance, yet voluntary care in the nature of medical treatment for the mother may help and enable the womb-child to grow. In any case, ill-temper and violent activity of the mother do affect or disturb the physical development of the child while in embryonic form. To omit pre-birth care from the general arrangements for juvenile welfare is to build upon an insecure foundation.

For the reasons outlined above we definitely suggest:—

1. The extension of the period of Nursery School or Kindergarten from two and a half or three years of age backward to the day of birth.
2. The establishment of a Maternity House for the benefit of pregnant mothers, who might otherwise suffer intolerable hardships during the pregnant months, thereby affecting the womb-baby.

If the validity and necessity of these proposals be recognised in this meeting we should advance one step further and suggest that a definite attempt be made, not necessarily immediately, to work out a plan or plans suitable for adoption by all nations. Hardly is there a regular

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and workable scheme suitable for all nations even with regard to the training of pregnant mothers, nor is the minimum length of time for the mother staying in the Maternity House determined, though the discussion in small Committees, and occasionally at long meetings of Nursery School teachers, may do much to help in forming a standard. We should, therefore, like to see the principle or idea of the outlined proposal accepted, and after the acceptance of the idea we should like to see the proposal brought back to different countries, and a permanent national council formed for the purpose of discussion and experiment either after the Nursery School's fashion or according to other methods. While we are still in the difficult period of experiment on pre-school education and care, the object of our suggestion is not to prophesy a full fruition, but to discover how far we should make use of pre-birth and pre-school education to complete and supplement the present system of child education.

Recent Developments in Child Study in Canada : a
Paper contributed by Professor J. W. BRIDGES,
M'Gill University, Montreal.

An impetus has been given to child study in Canada by the Canadian National Committee for Mental Hygiene. This organisation, realising the importance of the early years of life in determining later normality or abnormality, is promoting a programme of research into childhood and its problems. Through the efforts of the Medical Director, Dr C. M. Hincks, financial support for such a programme has been obtained from the Rockefeller Foundation and from the Laura Spelman Rockefeller Memorial.

The Rockefeller Foundation has granted \$15,000 a year for a period of five years, on condition that the Committee for Mental Hygiene subscribe a like amount to carry on this work. The money is divided equally between two programmes of work, one in Toronto and

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one in Montreal. In Toronto the work is being done under the direction of Professor E. A. Bott, Dr W. E. Blatz, and Professor E. D. Macphee, who are making a study of the normal child in school. In Montreal the work is under the direction of Dr W. T. B. Mitchell and myself, and we are making a study of the various forms of social maladjustment in children.

The Laura Spelman Rockefeller Memorial has granted \$20,000 a year for five years for the establishment of nursery schools of the laboratory type at M'Gill University, Montreal, and at the University of Toronto. These schools will be administered by the Universities concerned with the active co-operation of the Committee for Mental Hygiene. Arrangements are being made for co-operative studies by the interested departments of the Universities, such as psychology, physiology, anatomy, pediatrics, etc. These schools will differ from the nursery schools in Great Britain in the emphasis upon research, and in the selection of children from all classes of the population. It is also planned to undertake in connection with each school a systematic programme of "Parent Training." This part of the work has been financed by a grant of \$2000 from the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company.

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Tuesday, 21st July.

In the absence of Mr R. Leipins, Latvia, Mr A. M. MacQueen, Glasgow, was appointed to the Chair.

THE CHAIRMAN called upon Dr Petri, Parliamentary Under-Secretary of State of the Hungarian Ministry of Instruction, to deliver a message from Hungary.

Dr PETRI offered greeting to the Congress in the name of his country and Hungarian Educationists

Schools for National Minorities.

Address by Dr PAUL PETRI, Under-Secretary of State in the Hungarian Ministry for Education.

Dr PAUL PETRI: Hungary and Hungarian educational people have until now not taken part in the educational world Conference, and this is the first opportunity where we can raise our voice at the meeting of the foremost educationalists of the world. Therefore allow me to greet the Conference, and to express the opinion that the Hungarian educationalists also agree on the purpose of the Conference. We also wish to consult each other on the best means of attaining the desired end, viz: as Dr August O. Thomas, the President, says, of securing the sympathetic co-operation and goodwill of every country, so that justice may prevail and the clash of arms be avoided.

For the attainment of this great and sacred purpose, please do not consider my bad English as an obstacle in my endeavours in giving you my experiences of conditions in South-Eastern Europe.

One of the facts I wish to mention is, that although there were great economic differences amongst the great nations, and, though there was mistrust amongst them, and

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everybody saw that war-preparations would sooner or later reap their fruit, yet it was not the leading Western nations, who threw the first spark which lighted a world war. Let us just think for a moment on the Balkan war, or any other war—we may mention the last great war—and we will see that the war-movement arose in those countries where inner unrest prevailed, and where different nationalities were obliged to live in one state.

The former Austro-Hungarian Monarchy, as a territory, and that of the Balkans, show a very typical picture of national diversity and of ethnographical confusion.

I cannot deny that I do not regard the present frontiers as very fortunate. For owing to the Peace Treaty, they have taken away thousands and millions of people from their old homes, who have a strong national feeling and a culture behind them. The same are forcibly made to belong to a foreign nation. It is my strong impression that by changing the frontiers, much could be done to improve present conditions, and also to remove discontent among the minorities.

But I do not wish to talk on this question. My purpose is to consider how we can soothe the susceptibilities of those nationalities which are living together under the rule of another nation. Anyone who just glances at the map of Eastern Europe, or who knows what the kaleidoscope of nationalities is like in the territory formerly belonging to the Austro-Hungarian Monarchy, or in that of the Balkans, will conclude that this question is most important for the peaceful development of Europe, and, therefore, everyone who wishes to strengthen the spirit of peace and exorcise the spirit of war, must set himself to the solution of this problem. It would be most practicable to see first of all, where a happy assimilation of races has been attained, and where there was or rather is peace among the nationalities living under the same rule. May I refer at this point to Dr Thomas again, who talking about the conditions of nationalities

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in America, says : " America is a land in which are found all races, all tongues and all religions. They have come without common traditions, without common history, without a common governmental tendency, without a common religion, without common racial traits and character, and without a common tongue. But in coming here and entering into the spirit of American institutions, they have become one."

If we come to ask, what is the cause of this, we find, that it is the powerful economic strength of the United States, her supremacy, her cultural power, that effects the assimilation of different nationalities, or rather makes it possible for them to become in a short time good citizens. Another factor is, that this country is a strong economic and geographical unity.

It is like this in America and it has been so in Europe too. Nationalities fit properly into the unity of another nation, only if the ruling nation decisively exercises some attractive power through her higher cultural or economic conditions.

This is the situation in the western states of Europe, as in France, where Celts and Britons live together, or in Germany, where Slavs and Teutons live together, and more or less it was the same under the former Austro-Hungarian Monarchy, where apart from lesser disputes, every nationality found its happiness; and particularly so in the Hungarian part of the former Monarchy, where co-operation was so much the easier as there was not only an economic but a perfect geographical unity.

What is the position, where not one nation has a definite economic or cultural supremacy and neither natural nor common traditions keep the different races together? Here, if one cannot change the frontiers, peace and quiet can be attained if the different cultural, religious, racial, and lingual conditions are preserved, if those concerned can use their own mother tongue, and their own customs. In other words it is only through

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the widest national liberty that peace and quiet can be maintained in the Eastern part of Europe.

We do not wish to occupy ourselves with the problem as to how this national freedom may be expressed in the different forms of public life, we have only to concentrate our mind on the question, as to what education and schooling must be, to secure the peaceful advance of the different nationalities and races.

The knowledge of these principles and the exchange of experience is important for all those states, where people speaking a different mother tongue are subject to a common rule. Therefore, I think, it will not be uninteresting to say a few words on the present school policy of Hungary, where although there is only ten per cent. national, it will in many respects serve as an example of those states, where the national minorities are stronger.

I have to mention first of all, that the most of the nationalities now living in the country arrived there after the Turkish wars in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries. Therefore, the non-Hungarians living in Hungary do not form an ancient autochthonous people, but come under the same category as emigrants, people who occupy themselves with agriculture and who have little cultural capacity. Out of the eight million Hungarians, 500,000 are Germans, about 140,000 Slovaks, 23,000 Roumanians, 36,000 Croatians, 17,000 Serbs. Most of these nationalities are scattered about the country, and administration therefore is difficult. As it is they comprise on the average a vast minority. They have thus an opportunity to cultivate their ancient tongue, their customs, their traditions in the schools, and they are permitted to use their own tongue in the schools.

This was secured by a law in 1868, but further provision for the protection of those numbering 4800 scattered apart appears in the statute of 1924.

This statute first of all provides for *freedom in choosing*

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ing the school. This is important in Hungary, as not only secondary schools, but also elementary schools are handled by different organisations. In the western democracies State schooling rules. In the historical Hungary elementary teaching, but also to some extent secondary school teaching is in the hands of religious corporations and communities. In historical Hungary two-thirds of elementary school teaching was in the hands of these religious corporations. In post-war Hungary the figures are still larger. Besides this there are localities and towns, which maintain schools, *the language used being a free choice.* These institutions are controlled by the government only as regards educational efficiency.

Most of these elementary schools are subsidised by the State. In giving this help, the State never asks what the language of the school is. In the State schools also the policy of national liberty is adopted, and in every community, where the number belonging to the minority has reached forty individuals, or where the minority is in excess, those concerned decide what language should be adopted in school. Possibilities in the policy of adoption may be as follows :—

- (a) They may say, that every subject should be taught in the minority language, and the State language incorporated only as one subject.
- (b) Adopting a mixed school, where one part of the curriculum is taught in the prevailing minority language, and then the other part in the State language; or
- (c) They may wish, that only writing and reading should be taught in the minority language and the minority language should be a regular subject, all the other subjects being taught in the State, i.e., the Hungarian language. Here the matter solely depends on the respective minority, as to what language should be used for teaching their children.

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The reason why we have such a variety of minority schools is, because owing to the peace treaty, the minority people are chiefly mixed with Hungarians and they live in small districts, where there is only one school with one master: further, because in some places the minorities expressed the desire not to have a specific minority school, because they wish that their children should learn the State language better. A method had to be adopted whereby the special desires of the community should be regarded: finally, teaching power had to be gradually trained for minority language teaching, as for the moment there was none at hand. Those who had previously given such teaching had been torn away from the country, and were living in the occupied area.

The above rules do not refer to the schools of religious corporations, as these are subject to the decisions of the Church organisation which maintains them. This fact is important, as most of the Hungarian schools are in the hands of these religious organisations. The Churches here have perfect autonomy in the matter of schooling. This had to be respected. The State, however, brought in measures whereby the interests of the minorities were protected. For instance, it advised the Church schools, as to where it considered it advisable to teach a minority language, and further requested the Church organisations to take care that the minorities should suffer no neglect in their schooling.

In speaking of State elementary schools it is important to know that the Minister of Public Instruction gave orders to the inspectors of education to take care to have introduced the teaching of the minority language where the minority element forms the smaller part of the population, or where there are at least forty individuals belonging to a minority group at the school age.

The Hungarian Prime Minister, too, laid special stress on this in so far that he instructed all the administrative

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officials concerned to see to the enforcement of the introduction of such a type of teaching as would give the respective minority language its proper place in the scale of education.

We see, therefore, that it was not only by means of formal government rules that this point was guarded, but that a whole series of government decisions was adopted to ensure proper consideration for minority teaching, both in State and private schools.

We can only hope that contentment will arise among the minorities, if the Government, as well as the community, strives earnestly to extend opportunities to the minorities.

That those schools, which come under the minority consideration should have proper teaching supply, it has been decided by the Government that in five schools for Hungarian teacher training there will be courses for German teaching, for the Slovak in two, for the Serbo-Croats also in two, and further the teacher seminaries of religious corporations will also be asked to collaborate.

In Hungary only elementary school teaching is compulsory. Every child has to attend twenty-four to thirty hours of classes per week from the sixth till the twelfth year of age. From then on till his fourteenth year he has to attend a so-called repetition school. This repetition school is intended to prepare the child for his future vocation. The guiding principles here regarding minority education are the same as in the case of the elementary schools.

Those who want to attain a higher form of education go to a secondary school, after attending the classes of the elementary schools.

In all of these secondary schools the minorities have the right to ask that parallel classes should be formed, where teaching should be partly or wholly according to the wishes of the minorities.

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The Hungarian State has also taken care of the cultural requirements of the minorities by the scientific analysis of their language and experimentation therefrom. It has also provided for the proper instruction of the minority language, by inaugurating in her four universities chairs for the study of the language and literature of national minorities.

Concerning our educational system which prevailed before the Great War, we must state that at this time the nationality policy of Hungary in educational affairs was often attacked, although conditions were but little different from those of to-day. Neither were actual conditions entirely unfavourable for the different nationalities. Very often, however, they did not refrain from interference with nationalities in matters of detail, their feelings, their old customs. For instance, if they stuck to their national colours, the authorities took this as intentional provocation on their part. Neither did they follow a Magyarisation policy, but in some cases a few government officials, whether by forcible methods or peaceful, used the method of pin-pricks, and thus aroused more or less hatred among the nationalities.

Such methods are now discarded by the new Hungarian educational policy, which aims not only at the teaching of the minority language, but at *impressing upon the youth that it is the first duty of a cultured people to respect the historical past—the desires, customs, and language of other nationalities.* They wish to drill it into the youth and the future generation that they must foster understanding and good feeling among nationalities, and *I wish to recommend this to every state of Eastern Europe.* Where there is no geographical unity, only by sharing in common the historical past and the economic and cultural supremacy of the ruling race; *only by granting nationality freedom, love and understanding can discontent and unrest be lessened, and any movements which aim at the use of force be checked.*

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Not until there is inner freedom in the smallest states of Europe on the basis of nationality freedom, not until we educate the young generation in the love of mankind, in respect for each others' racial and national characteristics, can we hope for the fulfilment of our great aspirations for the co-operation of all mankind for the benefit of civilisation.

It is also a matter of interest to the larger nations of Europe to recognise such a policy of freedom and respect for the smaller nationalities no matter what their size may be.

These considerations have induced me to tell you of the conditions in Hungary as regards the education of the smaller nationalities comprised within her boundaries, and I thank you heartily for listening to my address.

THE CHAIRMAN thanked Dr Petri for his interesting address.

THE CHAIRMAN reminded the Delegates of the subjects for discussion. The first was—"What means should be taken to acquaint teachers with the movement and with materials suitable for the observance of Goodwill Day?"

Dr ALETTA E. MARTY, Toronto, the Secretary, emphasised the importance of the subject, and said : Many of us have had some experience in the observance of Goodwill Day. Some of us have had no experience at all, and I think it would be well for us to confine ourselves for a few moments to the first topic, and we should like to hear from some of those in whose countries Goodwill Day has been observed. I know that to the south of my country, which is Canada, they have been observing Goodwill Day. In Canada, however, they have not taken steps to carry out its observance.

THE CHAIRMAN: Would some of the Delegates from America give us their experience of Goodwill Day?

A SCOTTISH DELEGATE: May I inquire what the origin of this movement of Goodwill Day was? We in Scotland have not observed it, as far as I know.

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Dr MARTY : At the meeting in San Francisco two years ago, the observance of Goodwill Day was one of the planks, I might say, in the platform. It was decided that the observance of Goodwill Day on May 18th would be productive of great good throughout the world if on that day in the schools a certain line of teaching were adopted and emphasis laid on International understanding, and a special type of programme were brought before the children. It is simply an extension of the idea of Empire Day.

THE MARCHIONESS OF ABERDEEN : A good many years ago the International Council of Women adopted this policy in trying to bring before the different countries in the world the advisability of setting apart a day, and it was this very same day of the Hague Conference that was chosen for the purpose.

The International Council of Women represents thirty different countries, and they have been endeavouring to promote the practice of international goodwill. This subject has been brought before the different countries in this way, although I am afraid during these last sad ten years the matter has not received the attention we would desire. The different National Councils, however, would be very glad to support this movement. (Applause.)

Miss FLORA DRAKE, Minneapolis : In Minneapolis, May 18th was taken as International Day. Teachers were notified and asked to select their programme for the Day in the teaching of geography or history in a way which would emphasise International relationships. The Day has also been observed all over Indiana.

Mr HARRISON, Fellowship of Youth for Peace, New York City : I speak as an ex-soldier, and as a representative of the Youth Movement for Peace. The movement has tried to focus attention on international relationship, particularly in regard to America and Japan. We got schools, colleges and organisations in eighty-four States to take the matter up, and we got the co-operation of

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Christian Endeavour Societies and other groups, totalling a membership of something like 25 millions. We cabled a message to the League of Nations' representatives in Japan, and it got into all the newspapers there, that like the Youth of Japan we were working for International Peace. We got the use of the Broadcasting Station, and foreign students, representing twenty-five nations, in Boston to speak for the Youth of the World. This demonstration was listened to by 25,000 people. In many of the schools in Philadelphia and New Jersey we got the students to put on special programmes on New Year's Day.

It was my purpose here to speak briefly about this Youth for Peace Movement in order to help to carry out the Herman-Jordan plan. That is one of the most vital ways of bringing the International idea to our high schools, so that in Britain there may be an expression of goodwill to China and India and in America to Japan, and thus make it a vehicle of real International understanding.

Miss LEIGHTON, New York City: It is absolutely necessary that in the public schools of my country there shall be taught to the children nothing which shall in any way bear on the nation's heroic past. We must have a Goodwill Day, and this body is almost divinely ordained to get material of a kind which shall bring up the children of the world in love and peace with each other and which shall yet have the approbation of every patriotic citizen in every country. We must have this material. If the schools do not provide it, we shall have to ask for it from outside, and if it is offered from outside, it may have a more or less partisan or political significance, so that if an organisation of this kind, working through a world-wide Committee, can arrange material which can be radioed, circulated among teachers throughout the world, we could in the hearts of our children inculcate love and kindness and respect towards all nations. The advantage of having one day throughout the entire

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world, when all the teachers unite with all the children in kindly and benevolent and loving thought of each other, seems to me incalculable.

LADY DELEGATE from Los Angeles : In every school in the city we observe Goodwill Day, though in different ways. In the section I am particularly interested in, where I think we have nearly every nation represented, we have teachers who go round the homes once a month, and when Goodwill Day came we had no trouble in having nearly every nation represented in the Goodwill programme, and our children have no trouble in having Goodwill together. They play together and study together, and whenever the chance comes each shows what the other nation can do. Just previous to Goodwill Day, in the Los Angeles Teachers' Bulletin, there were letters written from each country by pupils in the schools of that country, and it was very interesting to read how these schools were celebrating Goodwill Day.

Dr A. W. DUNN, Secretary, American Junior Red Cross : The Junior Red Cross of the World now includes some ten or twelve million children organised in the schools. These organisations in the various nations have their publications. The Junior Red Cross Magazines are used in the various schools. We are an organisation whose main purpose is that of goodwill, and I merely rise to say that these magazines and the other equipment of this organisation, including this International school correspondence, is at the service of the educational forces of the world in the observance of this Goodwill Day.

A LADY DELEGATE : In using the material we get from the Junior Red Cross Magazine on Goodwill Day, we had a pageant of the school children of the world, just by small children of intermediate grade.

ANOTHER LADY DELEGATE : In connection with what Dr Dunn said, I took the liberty of bringing with me some correspondence which the children with whom I have been working have had with different sections of the world. I

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have, for instance, a letter which came from Angola, Africa, from some children there. I have a letter from Columbia, in South America, and from different sections of the world. That school correspondence to me is one of the very important features of carrying on the International Goodwill programme. Now, I believe in Goodwill Day thoroughly as the culmination of a whole year's programme, but I should deplore the fact if Goodwill Day were the only day of goodwill. That is evidently absurd. We know that unless the children get along with one another they will never get to a point of view in the world with people farther removed, so that is one of the points which Goodwill Day to me means, just one day in the whole year of character development and of giving a vision to the children with which to live better lives than we have lived before. (Applause.)

A SCOTTISH DELEGATE: This Goodwill Day seems to come from America, like many good things. I think it would be much more to the point to occupy our time by telling us how we could make this movement International. For instance, in this country, there are only Scottish children in the schools. We have hardly heard of this Goodwill Day yet, and we would like to know how it could be made International.

THE CHAIRMAN: I think the suggestion that we should have a representative Committee who should give a report to a later meeting comes in here. In Scotland we stand to learn a great deal from it.

Dr MARTY: There is one question that I think we ought to raise in this connection. We would not attempt in our schools to try to have Goodwill Day observed without the sanction of our Education Authorities. We have never had any organisation which would appeal to our Governments to make it a national or even a provincial thing. There should be some recommendation to our Delegates as to how to set to work to make this Goodwill Day a National Day in each country.

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A DELEGATE : I have been very much impressed by the genius which our friends in America have for making a movement public, but am I right in understanding that in America what they really rely on in order to bring about National Goodwill is not so much publicity but the personality and goodwill of the teachers themselves?

THE CHAIRMAN : I think that is fairly evident from some of the speeches of the teachers.

THE MARCHIONESS OF ABERDEEN : If I may speak for my own County of Aberdeenshire, by arrangement between the Education Authority and the Teachers' Association, in all the schools in Aberdeenshire and also in Banffshire and the other Counties near by, on certain days of the year—on Armistice Day and Empire Day—teachers have been requested to speak on the lines of the League of Nations, and pupils are instructed in the principles of the League of Nations, and examinations are held over a certain standard. So at least in some parts of Scotland it is observed.

MR Crichton, Edinburgh : I am Chairman of the Edinburgh Council for the Prevention of War, and that is what brings me here this morning. I would suggest that no matter what may be the spirit of the teacher who is teaching the children, if the text-book which you give the children glorifies war, it does not good but rather harm. (Hear, hear, and applause.) Therefore, I would like to suggest that we go to our Education Authorities and try to show them that we put the wrong text-book in operation and that we should take out of all the text-books we give to our children all glorification of war and bowing to the national flags of our nations. As long as we have it that patriotism is the Union Jack, we will never get any International friendship. We are all one family, living together on one earth under one Father. Eliminate all idea of war and strife and conflict from the young mind, and we will arrive at some satisfactory solution.

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Miss LELAND, U.S.A.: I think we need to go further. Have we along the line of history and civics a really constructive book? It seems to me that we should go to our publishers and tell them the kind of book we need.

Mr LA MONTE, U.S.A.; I am not a teacher. I happen to be Chairman of the Council for the Prevention of War in the United States. One thing we have been able to do on this line is to assist in the distribution of a series of posters of the children of many lands, which has been a very useful means of educating children, both in the schools and in the public libraries. It is a series of a dozen or more posters depicting children of various lands so that the children in America, from these little posters with appropriate rhymes underneath, can become acquainted with children whom before they have regarded as barbarians. We are convinced that if the little children of America become acquainted with little children of other lands all over the world and become their friends, then when they grow up they will never want to fight those children. (Applause.)

Mr PINCOMBE, London: It may perhaps be useful to say that we have two celebration days in London throughout the schools of the Metropolis. Those are Empire Day towards the end of May, and Armistice Day in November. The Authorities sanction the celebrations on those days. I think I can assure you on behalf of the 25,000 teachers of London that the spirit in which those celebrations are held, although the name may not be quite appropriate to the name that you have chosen for the celebration in the United States, is in the spirit of harmony with the sentiments that have been expressed to-day. (Applause.)

A LADY DELEGATE from America: Teachers can find out just which organisation will help by writing to the Council for the Prevention of War, and they have suggestions for teachers of all grades and pageants which are very inexpensive. They tell about a book of coins

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and stories that can be used on various days throughout the year, stories which emphasise peace and give the children the right kind of patriotism, the peace patriotism. The Council is sending out this little book. The Council's address is 572 Seventeenth Street, Washington.

A DELEGATE: In Scotland we observe Empire Day and Armistice Day, and the suggestion has been made that we should appoint a Committee to approach Education Authorities in order to interest them in Goodwill Day. As a member of an Education Authority, I fear the principal objection will be, if there be any, that it is an increase of "Days." I would ask the Secretary if there is any difficulty in Toronto in observing Empire Day and Goodwill Day?

Dr MARTY: We have never observed Goodwill Day in Canada, so far as I know. We always observe Empire Day. It has been established by the Government. We also observe Armistice Day, but May 18th, the day set apart for Goodwill Day, has never so far been observed. The teachers could not do anything without the permission of the Authorities.

THE DELEGATE: May I add that the spirit in which we observe Empire Day and Armistice Day in Scotland is as the representative from London has declared. As a teacher, may I say that in celebrating Empire Day I have always referred to our heroic past. I make that remark now because it has been observed here that we should not in teaching history refer to our heroic past.

Mr ELDER, Scottish Trades Union Congress: I think our visitors from abroad will desire that they should not be misled with regard to the observance either of Empire Day or of Armistice Day inside Britain. It is true that Armistice Day may be modified to a certain extent, but it is quite obvious that the motive behind the holding of Empire Day is found in the name of that day, and that the whole of the efforts directed towards making that day a celebration are made with the intention

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of making the children extol the glories of Empire and particularly what the British Empire in particular may have contributed to the world, or may have obtained from the world. (Laughter.) I think when our friends from London and elsewhere talk about the same spirit which is found in the celebration of Empire Day being the spirit you desire to inculcate through Goodwill Day, this conference is entitled to know it is not the same spirit—(applause)—and it cannot be the same spirit where we use such terms, obviously designed to keep the old traditions of Imperialism and of National aggression and of National sentiment.

We inside Scotland in particular, as most of the delegates will have appreciated by this time, are by no means modest about our Nationality—(laughter)—and we have no desire to hide those particular things which we as a Nation are supposed to have given to the world. At the same time, while we do appreciate that there is a field for Nationalism, there is some difference between Nationalism and cosmopolitanism. While we do appreciate that, I think the best thinkers inside Scotland appreciate that we need some material basis behind an International Goodwill Day. I should like to suggest that in order to do that we must get to some basis apart altogether from a general ethical basis. After all, ethics of necessity have their place in the experience of mankind, but the unfortunate thing about ethics is this, that they might mean everything and anything to different peoples and to different times, and to talk about the brotherhood of man and leave it at that, leads us nowhere. In order to get down to a sound teaching of true International relationship, we have to let the children understand exactly what the Nations contribute to the world—(applause)—and in doing that, I want to suggest that we have not of necessity to keep talking about Art with a capital A, or Literature with a capital L, or Music with a capital M. We have to go to the production

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of the world and make it clear, from the point of view, if you like, of economic geography, to the children that the Nations of the world, because of their particular geographical situations, because of the adaptability of those peoples, do by means of these mundane efforts contribute something which is of value to the world, and because they do, in that economic sense as well as in the sense of Art and the ethical sense, contribute something to the world which the world requires, then those Nations are of equal standing in the world, and should obtain an equal respect, an equal understanding and an equal love amongst the peoples of the world. (Applause.)

The meeting unanimously agreed to the appointment of a Committee to deal with the subjects under debate, the Chairman and Secretary to appoint a Committee, and delegates to nominate any whom they desire to serve on the Committee. It was agreed that the Chairman and Secretary be included in the Committee. In reply to a delegate, Dr Marty suggested that the Committee might report on the morning of Friday, 24th July. A delegate expressed the hope that every Nation represented at the meeting would be represented on the Committee.

The Chairman then invited the attention of the delegates to point No. Two—"What elements in the curricula of the elementary school are calculated to develop the virtues necessary to world understanding, justice and goodwill?"

Professor SATYAMURTI, Madras, India: I am very keen that this World Federation should do something to promote world understanding, justice and goodwill. One would think from what we have heard this morning that the world consists of Scotland and America. (Laughter.) But it is a broad historical fact which no amount of argument can do away with, that 700 millions inhabit China and India. If you want to tackle this problem

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seriously, you will have to grapple with this question of the East, and we should no longer have that pernicious doctrine that "East is East and West is West and never the twain will meet." It was Dr Johnson who said, "You can make something even of a Scotsman if you catch him young." (Laughter.) I do suggest, therefore, that if we can only get the children of the world and put to them correct ideals and ideas we shall have done much more than all your International Congresses or Leagues of Nations can do to promote world friendship and goodwill. Now, the question arises: what are the means by which we can adapt the curricula in order to get this kind of understanding in our children's minds? We must put into these children's minds correct ideas about Nations other than their own.

How many people here have correct notions about my country? I would not be surprised if several of you in your heart of hearts think that we are a kind of primitive people, who are barbaric, who do not believe in those things which ought to be believed in, and that we ought to be tolerated because of the glories you can sing of on Empire Day. The kind of European we meet every day is a man who looks upon us as an inferior race. That is the smug self-satisfied manner in which India is looked upon by Europe. We should teach that no Nation has the monopoly of knowledge, that God fulfils himself in many ways, and that there are contributions which each Nation can make to the cause of humanity which no other Nation can make. Therefore, if only the children of Scotland and of America and of India can learn that there are children in other countries animated with the same goodwill towards one another, we shall have done a very great deal indeed.

Then, the other point is this—my friend over there raised the point, and I am glad my friend of the Trades Union Congress reinforced it—each child is told

when at school practically about the greatness of its Nation in the past. Now, we have got to give to these children correct ideas of National greatness. So long as you give to these children the idea that National greatness alone makes it possible for you to dye as much of the map of the world red as possible and call it Empire, to make it possible to say: "We are able to govern one-fifth of the human race," so long as National greatness is translated into terms of pounds, shillings and pence and square miles of Empire, believe me, no amount of Goodwill Day is going to alter mankind. So the fundamental psychological fact is this: let us be frank with ourselves and search our hearts: we have been taught that our Nation is the only Nation which ought to live. It is a continual struggle which is going on in the minds of everyone of us. Some of us succeed but most of us fail. If we let these children realise true ideals of National greatness, they will look upon each Nation as a Nation to be respected and not to be conquered by another Nation.

Another point is this. The English National Anthem—or, shall I say, the British National Anthem—has in one of its stanzas: "Confound his enemies." I do suggest that if you want your children when they are grown up men and women to live at peace and amity with the rest of the world you ought to give them ideas of peace, and not ideas of warfare. The last point is this: you have in your histories and story books types of National heroes who are your heroes and whose Statues I see in almost every public place in this country, in Churches, built in honour of Him Who came to establish Peace on Earth and Goodwill to all men. You have in those Churches statues of men whose only title to glory is that they destroyed more men than others. So long as you make your children look upon Clive and Nelson as the men who made England great, so long as you do not give these children a dog's chance to live

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in peace and amity, you will never get it. You ought to place before the children ideals of men and women who have distinguished themselves in the arts of peace rather than in the arts of warfare, those who made scientific discoveries and are adding to the productive capacity of the world, and also created works of art which have knit humanity together and which have sufficed to raise men from the level of a savage to the level of a Shakespeare.

As a practical suggestion, I do suggest that in our schools we ought to make our children, to whatever country they belong, read something of the good literature of other countries. (Applause.) It is good for Indian people to read something of English literature, and it is good for English people to read something of Indian literature and Chinese literature and Japanese literature. No country has got the monopoly of greatness in literature, and I can conceive of no greater incentive to International understanding than artistic understanding of all the literary masterpieces of the world. We ought to tell these children something of the heroes—in the sense in which I have used that word—of other countries than their own, of India and China and of the Nations of the West and East and the contribution they can make to civilisation.

I heartily endorse the proposal that this Federation will be doing very well indeed if it appoints a Committee to prepare an International textbook containing some of the ideas I have adumbrated which can be translated into all the languages of the world—a small comprehensive textbook containing a few good things, and, if possible, some songs, common works of art, which can be sung in all countries of the world. I do hope we shall be able to impress countries like mine, that when we talk of International relationship we do not mean that the East shall be ruled by the West. You and I have got to work together, and I say

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the only way in which we can bring the East into the struggle for the freedom of humanity will be for the Western Nations to give a proper continuous effective lead in the arts of peace as they have done in the arts of War. (Applause.)

THE CHAIRMAN: I would desire to compliment our friend on his speech. As he said, we should take care to have true ideals. I might tell him that the verse to which he alluded is always omitted from the National Anthem. As the time is going on I would be quite willing to hear anything in connection with point No. Three :—Is it possible and practicable for the Federation at this meeting to set in motion a means of selecting, cataloguing and disseminating materials and means suitable the end, and if so, how? And point No. Four :—What has the movement among our young people done to further international understanding, and is it desirable for the Federation to assist in furthering it? If so, how?

Mr WALKER, U.S.A.: I suggest that the Committee contemplated in the motion take cognisance of the points suggested by the last speaker relative to a textbook and to other methods of disseminating material suitable to the attainment of world understanding and world peace.

Miss CONWAY, National Union of Teachers: I agree with the speaker, but he has not got the true conception of what we mean when we say we observe Empire Day. The very teaching of Empire Day is the true ideal, the teaching that all those in the Empire shall be brothers and sisters together, and we do not emphasise the point of the inferior races as he thinks we do. We do not regard them as inferior races. I also think we ought to remember that if it had not been for men like Clive and Nelson it would not be possible to have International friendship. I am one of the people who think that boys and girls can learn to have patriotism towards their own country and they are the very men and women who afterwards become true International patriots. You

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must admit that you have to begin by letting a child know about his own country, by teaching him about his environment and his kith and kin. We want to make the League of Nations a practical reality. We want our American friends to come into the League of Nations. (Applause.) Their abstention from it makes it a very great weakness when we talk about the peace of the world. What are we going to do with these Nations who are going to take advantage of the inertia of other Nations? We must be practical in this matter. Boys and girls must learn the history of their country and the history of their great men and women before they are able to appreciate the wider history to which you wish to introduce them. It is quite contrary to educational practice to do otherwise. When you are teaching the child, you teach it its own environment and come to the wider issues later. I do appeal to this Conference not to consider so much the differences between us as to consider what we can contribute together for the good of the world.

With regard to the Union Jack, I am proud to be under the Union Jack. It has had a grand history, and I am going to teach the children about it as long as I live, and if I am not to be allowed to teach it, I will no longer teach. I am willing to treat my friend as a brother, but if he thinks Europeans are like that, he happens to have had an unfortunate experience.

Mr ELDER : It seems to me that we have got to consider the point of view of disseminating the materials and exactly what our objects are. I want to suggest to the people of this conference and to Miss Conway in particular that we are not going to get further in the matter of International relationship if we thrust the British Empire down their throats. I believe there is a patriotism, and I believe the development of any country, whether it be under the Union Jack or anything else, has been an economic development which has had its

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political and other developments, and in the course of that development much of it was of value. While I am of that opinion, I am not going to be an ultra-patriot and suggest that while the British Empire or any other Empire may have given much that was good to the world, it has not at the same time given much that is bad to the world.

THE CHAIRMAN: May I suggest that the British Empire is bulking too largely in this discussion—(applause)—and we should give an opportunity for some other speakers to put some other point of view before us.

A DELEGATE: I think the question put in point No. Four can be answered quite clearly in the affirmative. Having affirmed the principle, the question is put, "If so, how?" and I venture to think that it will not be possible for the Committee suggested this morning to make a report on Friday morning that will be as satisfactory as one would like it to be. I should like to suggest, therefore, that there should be a Committee formed of those who in America could meet at intervals, and thoroughly consider the whole question.

If you have to provide a text-book that shall be acceptable, you must have in that text-book a true history of each country, and if you have a true history you must have reference to men who made their names great and imperishable though they followed the art of War, and you will not have a true book if you eliminate facts of that kind—(hear, hear)—any more than a great artist would paint a true picture representing the events of his own day, making his work truly historical, if he kept from the canvas some of the things that we might regret, things that we do not want to be permanent, but things that are. (Hear, hear.) And so a text-book to be true will have to be prepared with great discrimination, with great care. It will take time, and hence, arising out of the discussion, which has shewn a great

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variety of views, some based perhaps not entirely on facts, I think a Committee formed of those who could be brought together with very little difficulty ought to be formed, such Committee to send us the result of their deliberations and so help us in our great desire to bring about International good feeling based upon justice and goodwill and making for the uplift of the people and the permanent peace of the world. (Applause.)

A LADY DELEGATE: I suggest that when this Committee is formed you should be very careful to have someone who knows about India and the conditions there as regards education. We have had two strong speeches, and it would be wise to have the other side put forward in Committee.

THE CHAIRMAN: I think we have really departed from that point.

MR HARRISON: I wish to say in a very brief speech that I am not an educator. My sole claim to speak to you this morning is as an ex-soldier. I would like to ask the Federation to accept the help of the Youth Peace Movement. It seems to me that this is not an opportunity of getting people to say they will not support their Government if another War comes, but, in a spirit of honestly trying to face the matter, we should find if there is a constructive path. That is the challenge of this Education Conference. You have the power in this generation to banish International warfare from the face of the earth if you have the courage to face up to the opportunity. We stand for the idea that we can appeal to France and Italy not to refuse to bear arms or train but to know each other and learn that we can agree to set up a Court and a Forum and substitute arbitration for the anarchy of the battlefield. This problem has a certain amount of technique to it. You know that it takes a considerable amount of study to evolve a literature.

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This movement led by ex-soldiers in Britain, in America and in France and Germany, is evolving a literature, not of propaganda but of facts. It could furnish speakers to speak in appreciation of the other country, and then a study group could be organised for discussion, not for heat but for light. This Herman-Jordan plan if it is honestly and sincerely carried out can absolutely lift up a generation inside a generation. We who have paid our price are anxious to co-operate with the educators of the world, and in the names of those who did not come back we ask you, not to co-operate with us on any negative and empty platform, but in a constructive effort to understand each other, to build goodwill through the world, to co-operate with those who have been seared in the sensitiveness of youth by the iron of War and who know its problems and who have it in our hearts and who are qualified to work with you. I wish to say—Do the educators of the world recognise their power, and will they work with the young ex-soldiers and the youth of the world to make International aggressive warfare as anachronistic as witchcraft in this twentieth century?

The meeting then adjourned.

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Wednesday, 22nd July.

Mr R. BENNETT MILLER, M.A., Member of Executive, Educational Institute of Scotland, presided.

THE CHAIRMAN: It is a very great pleasure to me indeed to welcome so large and so representative a meeting of delegates to what is probably one of the most important sessions of these important meetings. We in Scotland like to do things practically and definitely and we can only do that if we are thoroughly relevant on all points and "on the ball" all through the discussion. I really do hope that something tangible and vital will emerge out of this conference this afternoon.

The Secretary, Dr Marty, read the Minute of the previous meeting, and submitted a draft list of members of a Committee to consider the resolutions of the section.

THE CHAIRMAN: We come now to consider this very important matter which has been remitted to us for consideration. It concerns an international alphabet and its bearing on international education.

Address by Dr GRANT, Cults, Aberdeenshire.

Dr GRANT: I have first to thank the President and Directors for their kind invitation to speak on this subject, and I shall first of all read the motion on this subject. The motion is as follows:—"That the World Federation of Education Associations should declare it to be desirable that in addition to the National systems of writing in use, one scientific and phonetic alphabet should be taught to all pupils in the schools."

Now, I notice that one of the aims set forth by the President of the World Federation in his Monday's

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speech was the goodwill of the Nations and he tried to shew how that goodwill could best be established through the child in the school. I am going to take very much the same line in my words just now in support of this resolution. First of all, you cannot have goodwill without good understanding. We must understand each other if we are going to appreciate the difficulties that lie in each other's way and make allowance for them. Now, good understanding between Nations must come through the language in which each Nation is brought up. No doubt with literature we can do a good deal. It was impossible for the world to have advanced in the way it has done without the assistance of literature. We must not in any way minimise its influence in the making of Nations into friends. But there is something that we must also remember. Good literature must be founded upon the living speech of a people. As soon as a literature gets divorced from the living source, it becomes atrophied; it dries up. When I was a child I went to the Highlands with a friend and this friend could speak Gaelic; I could not. Now, at that time, it was possible to get great districts in Scotland where English was almost unknown. It might be heard occasionally, but it was spoken very little, and I found to my astonishment that as soon as the people knew that my friend could speak Gaelic their attitude changed. At first it was formal, it was cold, it was indifferent; but when they heard he could speak their own language it was an open sesame, a key to their hearts.

In one respect the way to the heart may often be through the intellect, and it is that in this case to some extent, at any rate. If we wish to get the goodwill of Nations, we must get to know their language; not everyone in a Nation can know the language of another Nation, but there are groups who must cultivate the language of the Nation that we wish to be friendly with. Now, I think everyone will allow that it is through

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this personal contact that we can get to know most about another people. We must not only read the language, we must speak it and send our representatives to the country where it is spoken and come into close relation with the people who speak it, and in this way these can interpret what the Nation is like, what are its aspirations, and so on. In the case of our own language, and in the case of many other languages, there is no doubt a very serious impediment placed in the way of those who wish to acquire the language as a living thing, not merely as a dead work, and that is the way in which languages are written. Just take our own language.

There are forty sounds in the language as spoken usually, and there are 400 different ways of representing these sounds. Now, any British subject trying to learn French, for instance, or German or Spanish or Italian has this great handicap against him; he cannot without some trouble get at the pronunciation of the language. He may get it, of course, from speakers, but that is not always easy. It takes a long time; a residence abroad often. Now, if there is any other way of shortening the method of learning the language I think we should adopt it. If there is a method of acquiring the pronunciation of the language easily, we ought to do our very best as teachers to get it into operation. For some time, I should say for nearly a hundred years, we have been trying to reform our curious way of writing the language so as to make it easier for our children and for foreigners, and we have made very little or no progress. I think we should re-direct the current of our energies, not altogether abandon and convert older people to something better, but we should take the child in the school and, as far as possible, use the education of that child to help us to a nearer approach to other countries.

We have a little experiment in the training centre in Aberdeen which is very interesting, and you will see the importance of it when I mention what it is. For some

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years we have had the classes in the infant room in the training centre practising school, learning, not to begin with, at any rate, the ordinary way of writing this language, but learning to speak and to write English through a system that is altogether scientific. We call it a phonetic system. For every one sound we have one letter and one letter only, and every sound has one letter attached to it and no more. It is not easy for grown-up people to understand what an easy thing it is for children to learn or write a language when it is presented to them in this fashion. You find curious spellings, and you are overawed by the curious appearance of it, and your sensibilities are shocked because it does not appear in the same way as it used to do. It spoils, perhaps, a poet for you, but not for the child. Instead of 400 ways of representing sounds, you have only forty ways. With forty counters you can make millions of words, if you like. A class of very ordinary children it was found had mastered all that was necessary for the language in a year. After that, all the teacher had to do was to keep up the practice the child had had. At a later period, I should say in the second or third standard, there might be a taking up of the ordinary way of writing. I know this will appear to you very extravagant, but from our experience we are certain that it is not by any means extravagant but that it is a very good substitute even for our old way of writing and speaking and learning to speak the language.

We find, for one thing, that the children who are brought up in this close association with the sounds speak in a very distinct and clear way, and that that continues right up through the school. We find also that it helps the composition, because when the children are allowed to write as they like—they write phonetically; that is, they write as they speak. If they speak wrongly they write wrongly, and if the teacher speaks wrongly they give her back her wrong pronunciation. So this is a corrective both for the children and the teacher. I should

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like to say that the only great difficulty in connection with this is the pronunciation. If you ask the children to write the words as they hear them pronounced, you may say—what pronunciation are we going to take? Are we going to take the pronunciation of cultured Aberdonians or of cultured Cockneys? You will have all kinds of pronunciation. I think business men have a right to demand a certain amount of uniformity, and I think that can be got over, and our experience will shew that it can be got over.

The training centres in Scotland some years ago made a representation to the Education Department, and between them compared the various pronunciations found all over Scotland, and they came to a resolution as to what should be allowed and what should be banned for the whole of Scotland. That is, we did for the whole of Scotland what I think can be just as well done for the whole of Great Britain and, it may be, for the whole of the English speaking world. I mention this because it can be applied not only to Great Britain and the English language, but it can be applied also to other countries who might wish to adopt this method of writing their words but are hindered by the thought of diversity of pronunciation all over the land. I have shewn you it is not impossible that we should have some reform brought about, and the importance of this from the point of view of commerce and of scholarship is very great indeed.

Sir MARK HUNTER: I rise to second the resolution proposed by Mr Grant and to support his main thesis. Just about this time last year a deputation connected with the Society which I have the honour to serve, the Simplified Spelling Society, waited on the President of the English Board of Education at Whitehall, in order to invite his sympathy and support for a Petition which my Society is furthering to be presented to the Prime Minister praying for the appointment of a Royal Commission to consider the whole question of English spell-

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ing, and we definitely recommended the Educational Authorities to recommend and approve the adoption for use in schools as an educational method of a simple phonetic spelling scheme by which young children should be taught the art of reading and writing.

We were received, of course, with perfect courtesy and consideration, and although the reply of the Minister was not sufficient unduly to elate us, nevertheless for reasonable purposes there was some room for encouragement. We represented to the Minister that experiments had been conducted in the use of a simple phonetic orthography in a number of schools with conspicuous success. These experiments prove that children taught in this way—a phonetic system on the principle of one sound, one symbol—learn remarkably rapidly to read and write according to the scheme; that written compositions by these children shew greater freedom and generally are better than the compositions of children in the same stage who have been taught in the ordinary way; that this kind of teaching encourages a clear and more distinct enunciation and a better intonation; that there is no difficulty whatsoever in the transition from the phonetic spelling to the current spelling; that children taught in this way acquire a real taste for reading in the current spelling; and lastly, that by the superior discipline of this phonetic system better results are obtained in other parts of the school course which seem to be in no wise related to reading and writing.

The Minister said he would like some concrete evidence of this success, so we prepared for him a pamphlet containing reports on the schools which had adopted this experiment. Most of the experiments are conducted in what is called simplified spelling, which, for International purposes, I freely confess will not do, but some of them have been conducted in the script of the International Phonetic Association which certainly would do for International purposes. I had a letter the other day from the

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headmaster of one of the schools concerned in which he said that the Director of Education of his County had paid them a surprise visit and had stayed several hours in the school, had tested the pupils in every possible way, and gone away delighted and saying the results were splendid and the children were a full year ahead of the chidren taught in the ordinary way. In order to be quite sure, I wrote to the Educational Officer himself and he replied that he endorsed every word that the headmaster had said and gave me full permission to make use of his testimony, and I have just used it.

I have myself seen in this country and in another part of the Empire the work of the children taught in this way. It was my privilege the other day to visit in Dundee a similar training centre to that in Aberdeen, and I stayed there several hours and watched young children who had been taught to read for some months in a phonetic spelling and had then passed on to the ordinary spelling. The achievement of the children was remarkable, both when they read in phonetic spelling and when they read in the ordinary spelling; but more remarkable was the way in which these children had grasped the principles of the phonetics although the technical terms of the science they were not troubled with. It was quite obvious from that that the discipline to which the children had been subjected was a most excellent discipline and fully accounted for the superiority of children so taught in other subjects to children who had been taught in the ordinary way.

We hope that our Petition to the Prime Minister will be successful and that a Commission will be appointed which will examine the whole question. The question of spelling reform may be treated quite independently of a revised or phonetic spelling. The arguments usually advanced against spelling reform for ordinary purposes are quite irrelevant against a phonetic script for use in schools. I hope, therefore, that this confer-

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ence will pass the resolution which has been moved by Mr Grant, because I feel sure that the opinion of this conference will carry great weight with the Educational Authorities in this country, and if something is done in this country the other parts of the Empire are likely to follow, and it is extremely likely something will be done in other countries either after or quite independently of it.

DISCUSSION.

Mr MACKINNON, Glasgow: Perhaps it may help to regularise matters and help the discussion if I move an amendment to the motion which has been put to the meeting. Before doing so I would like to say that the surprise I have in the meeting to-day is, I am sure, shared by a great many of the delegates here. There is no indication on our bill of fare that this was to be presented to us. (Applause.)

I am not doubting in any way and I am not sceptical in any way of the benefits that may accrue to this country and to all the countries in the world by adopting some means of meeting those difficulties children have to encounter in school when they find the vast illogical maze of difficulties which arise from the difference between pronunciation and spelling. I am not minimising that in any way, but I am not at all persuaded that the methods suggested to us to-day are the only or even best methods of meeting that difficulty, and I think it would be rather rash for this assembly to come to a fairly binding decision on a question like this when it was presented to us without any means of preparing the case for the other side. There is a big case for the other side which I do not mean to develop to-day, but as a practical teacher I know very well the difficulties which surround this very complex question. I would therefore, as an amendment,

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move as follows: "That it be remitted to a Committee of this World Federation of Education Associations to consider how best to meet the difficulties of pronunciation and spelling in the chief languages of the world."

We are, after all, a world-wide Federation, and we must tackle things from a world-wide point of view. The argument is put forward to-day that there are 400 symbols representing forty sounds. That is the English language, and that is not the only language in the world. The Italian language is almost phonetic as it stands to-day. I would like a Committee of a world-wide Assembly to investigate this question from a world-wide point of view. (Applause.)

THE CHAIRMAN: There is no difficulty with regard to the order. There will be no voting this afternoon. The voting will take place in the Plenary Conference if any voting takes place on Friday. The Committee Dr Marty read out will probably articulate the discussion that takes place this afternoon and will report to the full conference on Friday. This is purely a matter of discussion.

MR ALLAN: Might I suggest that the mover of this motion add the amendment of the proposed Committee to his motion, and I do not see anything contradictory in that.

DR THOMAS, the President of the Federation: It is not the purpose of the Federation to confine itself entirely to the programme in your hands. What the Agenda Committee did was to do the best it could in working out a tangible programme the results of which might be beneficial. Your deliberations here are threshing over the raw materials and getting them in shape and the Committee will formulate your deliberations, and then it would be well if at the closing session of the elementary section this Committee reported back for final approval before it came into the plenary session. Another thing: we want these discussions to be frank and free and full

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and sympathetic. Sometimes we may feel a little irritation, but as educated people we should keep unruffled. I should be very glad, personally, if your group should come to some definite constructive conclusions which may be printed in the Proceedings and sent out to all of us so that when you go home you can turn to it to know what the teachers throughout the world are thinking about. I believe these deliberations, and the very fact that you come here and that you get each other's viewpoint, are worth while.

A LADY DELEGATE: We are going back to the old spelling because after we tried the experiment we found it did not work very well.

A DELEGATE: May I ask the mover of the resolution what steps he proposes to take in this country to overcome the various dialects?

Dr GRANT: Well, I know a little about some Scottish dialects and I would answer that the best way to get good English speech—for I suppose that is what is meant by the speaker—is to eliminate dialect features from standard English. Now, the dialect features are not altogether features of pronunciation, but, very markedly so, there are features also, as you know, of idiom, but I am dealing with the features of pronunciation, and my own opinion, founded upon a good deal of experience, is that the children in the infant room should be thoroughly drilled in the sounds of the two languages and so by the contrast you will get the benefit of your teaching.

A Scottish child says "doon the rod." You have to eliminate that and get "road." I will tell you what happened in a junior class, in the infant room, when the children protested against the writing of this word on the blackboard. The teacher wrote "rod" on the blackboard. One of the pupils got up and questioned the spelling.

One good thing under the system of direct phonetic

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spelling is that it encourages investigation and correct reasoning on the part of the child. The child said it was wrong. The teacher asked what was wrong and the pupil said, "Oh, it should be so and so." The teacher said, "Come up, then, and write it down," and the child came up and wrote down the word with a different vowel sound. The teacher asked "How do you pronounce that?" The pupil said, "Oh, rod." Then the teacher said, "I should pronounce that *road*. That is the correct way of pronouncing it." I instance that to shew you how the children are able to recognise very fine differences in sound, and if you train them to the recognition of these difficulties in sound you will have the solution of the bad pronunciation. That is my solution for the pronunciation. For the idiom you can only have constant repetition of the correct idiom in English and the contrasts and standards of the Scottish idiom, whatever that might be.

THE CHAIRMAN: Now, I would like to get on to the next part of the programme. We group the first three items together—"1. What steps may the Federation take to produce a more sympathetic relationship to the study of geography? 2. What plan is feasible and advisable to set up for the exchange of materials bearing accurate and desirable information for geography teaching? 3. In the study of geography, is it possible to select, arrange and relate the essential elements so that teachers of one country may be mutually helpful to the teachers of another?"

Address by Mr A. M. BURDON, M.A., Director of Education of the County of Dumbarton.

Mr BURDON: I feel somewhat of an impostor standing here just now, as a large and representative audience such as this ought to be listening to a person who has not only vast and wide experience of the subject on which he is going to speak but has also had time in which

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to prepare something worth while for the meeting. I have had about two hour's time in which to prepare for the position that I am occupying at present. It appears that the gentleman who was to have led off the discussion on this important subject this afternoon has failed to turn up, and when I myself arrived here about twelve o'clock I was unfortunate enough to meet my friend, your Chairman, on the steps of the hall, and in a weak moment I consented to initiate the discussion this afternoon.

At the same time, I have given consideration to the teaching of geography and watched its progress for many years. Looking at the questions in the Agenda, I am a little bit puzzled with the first one. It says—What steps may the Federation take to produce a more sympathetic relationship to the subject of geography? I think your Chairman at the beginning spoke of a certain definiteness that Scotsmen are inclined to affect. The only conclusion I can draw about this particular question is that it was not therefore drawn by a Scotsman at all; otherwise, I think it would have been more definite than it actually is. However, the general intention of that question, I think, is quite clear. To my mind it means this: What can we as teachers and others interested in education do to enlarge the scope of geography as a school subject? The question almost implies that the subject of geography has in the past been neglected. I do not think that is the case. My experience goes back a fair number of years, and as far as I remember, geography has always formed a part of the curriculum. I think it must refer rather to the method than to the actual matter. Yesterday I listened with great interest to the discussion that took place in this section, and I think the keynote of all that discussion was internationalism. You had the subject of Goodwill Day before you.

Now, I think there is something appropriate in bringing on a subject like geography this afternoon to succeed the consideration that you gave yesterday to the subject

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of Goodwill Day and good understanding amongst the countries, and so on, because after all, geography is of necessity a cosmopolitan subject, and in my own experience it is becoming that more and more so every year. We can all look back to the times when geography, unlike charity, began at home and stayed there. Now I think the tendency is that while it must of necessity begin at home, it must not stop there, and in the schools with which I have to deal I can say this much, that the treatment of the subject is widening out every year and becoming more and more of a cosmopolitan subject. Another evidence of development is the practical work that has come to be associated with the teaching of the subject.

Formerly, as most of you know, the teaching of geography consisted of getting the children to memorise lists of names, capes, bays, and so on, with little attempt to get the children to understand what all those things meant. Now, practical instruction is looked upon as an essential part of the teaching, and in all departments, especially in the elementary school, every attempt is being made to enable the children to appreciate what they are studying. So much for the progress in the development of the subject.

Of course, after all, looking back again on this matter of what can this Federation do to produce a more sympathetic relationship, we must depend on our training colleges and universities, and it is a good sign that now we have either Chairs or Lectureships on geography in practically all our Universities, and also that the subject of geography is treated on the most modern lines in our training colleges. That is all to the good, and I have not the least doubt that in other countries represented here the same thing is taking place.

The next two questions are, first, "What plan is feasible and advisable to set up for the exchange of materials?" and second, "In the study of geography, is

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it possible to select, arrange and relate the essential elements so that teachers of one country may be mutually helpful to the teachers of another?" That is more difficult. At the same time, without having had time, as I have explained already, to go into the matter in any detail, I think there are evidences in all our experiences which shew that something is being done in this direction and that those evidences, I think, point the direction in which more might be done.

As I came into the hall I saw some diagrams shewing schools all over the world that have correspondence one with the other. There you certainly have one means by which the subject of geography can be made more real and more alive. If in that correspondence the interchange of photographs takes place as well as description, then I think a great deal could well be done to assist our teachers in helping our children to visualise countries that they have not seen and have very little prospect of ever seeing. Another factor that I think is playing its part and will in the future play a larger part in developing this subject is the interchange of teachers that I think we heard something of yesterday.
(Applause.)

In our County we have a little experience of that. Last year we interchanged two—one from our own schools with one in Canada and this year we have doubled our operations in that direction; that is to say, we have sent two to Canada and we are receiving two from Canada. Now, it does not take a great deal of imagination to realise what an effect that must have on those teachers. Probably the teachers in Canada have been trying to get their children to understand what kind of country Scotland is, and I have no doubt they had great difficulty, but when those teachers go back one can see that they will have a wealth of material at their command for illustrating their lessons that they could not have

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had any other way. That, I think, is one of the most hopeful methods of improving the teaching of geography within our reach.

Another factor is this, that travel upon the part of teachers is becoming more general every day. The facilities for travel, as you know, are improving year by year. A few days ago I was in London and I met some of our own teachers who told me that they were on their way to Italy. They further told me that no fewer than some 500—I think they said—teachers of Scotland were this year visiting Italy. You understand this is a special year in Italy—Holy Year, I think they call it—and most of the teachers were Roman Catholics. I took the opportunity of telling them that I expected when they returned they would be able to tell us a great deal more about Italy than we at present knew, and I have no doubt their visit to Italy this year will be reflected in their teaching.

Those are the main points that have occurred to me in the short time at my disposal. A very appropriate method by which geography can be given a reality that it does not always possess is this: (I have seen it put into practice on many occasions) the taking of the ordinary things that the pupils use and handle and see and eat every day of their lives and tracing them to their source. Take the breakfast table, take the dinner table, take their clothing—where have all those things come from? No method in geography can be made more practical than that. I have now exhausted the ten minutes I was to get. I hope the speakers who are to follow will amplify and extend—I have no doubt they will from the wealth of knowledge and variety of experience they have—the little I have been able to bring before you. (Applause.)

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Address by Dr D. C. T. MEKIE, Bristol School,
Edinburgh.

Dr MEKIE: Like the previous speaker, I begin with an apology. I have had even less time than Mr Burdon to think over what I have to say, and consequently my remarks must be very disjointed. As Mr Burdon remarked, the questions are somewhat vague (that is not altogether a disadvantage because it enables us to say a few things that might otherwise be ruled out as irrelevant) but the first question made me turn naturally to the Constitution of the Federation, and in Article 2 it distinctly lays down that the purpose of this Federation is to secure international co-operation, to cultivate international goodwill, and to promote the interests of peace. To my mind it seems that there is no subject more fitted to secure these ends than the subject of geography, especially geography as it is now taught in the greater number of our schools. Those of us who can go back for twenty-five or thirty years must recognise that an enormous advance has been made in the teaching of geography. It was the Cinderella of the school curriculum. Nobody was supposed to be able to teach geography, and the subject was put into any odd corner of the time table. Now, I should like to make this claim, that no subject makes greater claims upon the teacher than the subject of geography, because, as I conceive it, the science of geography deals with the sum total of human effort in relation to the environment in which human life is passed. Within the last twenty years there has been an enormous growth in the teaching material of what is called human development.

In France and in America, to mention only two countries, great stress has been placed upon what is called the human aspect of geography. That is to say, no longer is it centred on the world and the facts of the world; geography begins with man, not with the

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earth; and instead of placing stress upon the facts, as Mr Burdon said, and learning up lists of names, we start with man and his relationship to the world, and consequently the modern teacher is not interested in geographical knowledge at all as such. He does not make any attempt to get his children to learn lists of names. The right teacher, of course, will naturally point out to his children where they will get that knowledge, but he will not seek to emphasise it. The main business of geographical teaching lies in the building up of a conception of the world as the home of man. Here may I say that so far as I have been able to follow the teaching of geography in the United States there is somewhat of a difference between the teaching there and the teaching in this country. The United States is such a vast country that it is practically self-supporting, except for rubber. (Laughter.) And they look upon the teaching of geography as a teaching of the facts of their own country, and they bring in the facts of the world merely to illustrate the facts of the homeland. But in Britain we must start from another aspect altogether.

We look upon the world as the unit, and I think that that is the right method of teaching geography. Consequently, for breadth of outlook there is no subject that can compare with it, and it rests with the teacher to make the reaction between his own learning and that of his pupils a continuous stimulus towards the wide sympathies, broad grasp and appreciation of details, with power to proceed to generalisation which are the characteristics of true mental culture.

That brings me on to say with regard to Questions One and Three that I would be at one with Mr Burdon that there would be nothing that would lead to that better than exchange of teachers. After all, it is this outlook of the teacher that will dominate the teaching of geography. Travel by teachers is another method,

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and in Europe especially and to some extent even in our own country there is more than ever need for this real understanding of other nations. During the War not the least effective weapon was the weapon of propaganda which was forged in the white heat of passion and racial hatred, and if there is one evil result of War more than another, it is that these weapons of hatred and misunderstanding that were used in the War are not so easily cast aside when the War ends. One of the greatest evils is what an American writer has called "A hypersensitive internationalism," and this Federation stands for getting rid of that by understanding of other peoples. So I would say that if we are to secure a more sympathetic relationship to the subject of geography we must emphasise the human side of it, and the attempt to gain a real understanding of other people and on that we can base goodwill and peace among the Nations of the world. (Applause.)

DISCUSSION.

Dr MARTIN SCHMIDT, Budapest, Hungary: This is my maiden speech in English. (Applause.) Much has been said here about the exchange of teachers and of correspondence between schools, but those I think who spoke about it were English speaking. In our case it is a little different. I come from a country whose language is spoken only in a very small area. I do not think that among the 10,000 teachers there there will be one who wishes to teach in a Hungarian school; and the position is a little changed. I should put before you this question—how can this be done? I do not know any means. The possibility, perhaps, is that only when we get teachers from English speaking countries which know art and can teach that this is international can we again send teachers who want to learn English in your country. (Applause.) Another thing is the correspondence between schools. You see, the same

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difficulty exists here. Our children do not know English. All the letters have to be translated into English, and then again, the answers have to be translated into Hungarian.

I have been doing some translation between American schools and Hungarian schools, and I see what an inspiring effect this correspondence has had, and I should like to find out some means by which this correspondence may be furthered. A means of spreading the knowledge of geography is certainly travel. I would like to draw your attention to this. If you were to travel through Europe and through the Continent to come to my little country, I should be very glad to do whatever I could to guide you. I cannot give you lunch in the Music Hall, but I can devote my time to lead you from one place to another, especially those places that are common to us, and I am sure that all those delegates who have come from my country will be very glad to see you either this year or in coming years, and whenever you find friends who wish to come to Hungary please take that book with you and put in the names and I am sure you will find friends who will guide you in our country.
(Applause.)

One other matter about exchange: I should like if we could exchange something internationally, and that is, atlases, school books; and atlases speak for themselves better than books. I should be much gratified if I could have, for instance, a school atlas that is used, say, in the United States or in Scotland or in any part of the world, and you would see perhaps something different, and I think a little more correctly if you were to take the atlases from those places from which the visitor comes. (Applause.)

THE CHAIRMAN: If I may, I should like to congratulate you on the very successful maiden speech you have made. If we have learned one thing at this conference,

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it is to admire the delegates from other countries who have expressed themselves so fluently in our language.

Mr ALLAN, Kilsyth Academy, Stirlingshire : I should like to congratulate this section on the unity of the subjects that have come before it. I admired the American teachers who described how such a number of letters were exchanged on May 18th, and I am sure if the proposal of Sir Mark Hunter and Mr Grant is adopted and atlases are exchanged which are printed in phonetic names some of you travellers will not make the mistakes that are made. I notice that it is a habit of this section to contribute personal experiences, and I think that demands a little indulgence. If you will give me that indulgence, I will tell you what experience Kilsyth Academy has had in exchanging correspondence with other schools.

We had an enthusiastic Esperanto teacher in our school and she began to teach a class and was bringing them on to exchanging letters, and she found another class in Coatbridge which had a great lot of correspondence with foreign countries. I assure you it was extremely vivifying to the pupils in such a subject to have this foreign correspondence, and one day I got a letter from Idaho, U.S.A. The lady wrote proposing that the scholars of my place write letters to the scholars of her place. Well, they did, and not once and not twice, but it went on of its own accord. I found the school room littered with American magazines, the *Frontier*, and one thing and another, and there was a strong taste for American stories and a great appreciation of America. What resulted on the other side I do not know, but I should think that picture postcards also are a very satisfactory means of giving pleasant impressions of foreign countries.

As to what my friend Dr Schmidt has said, I think he is a perfect missionary and the apostle of the virtues of his own country. I have met many of his compatriots

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many years ago, and I do not know any people who are more fit for real warm and noble friendship with the people of our country than the people of his country. (Applause.)

Madame BIGOT, Education Workers International, Paris : I speak in the name of the Education Workers International. We are an Association grouped on the basis of Trades Unionism. We are to bring together teachers in all the world and to lead with the labour movement. Now, I come exactly to the point of my intervention. I must tell this Assembly of an experience we had in France last year when the conditions of Germany were so bad. We had some boys and girls sent into France to be kept in French families for several months. Those boys and girls came and were sent to French schools, and we can see how interesting an experience this was, because you know how difficult it is now to bring together French and German people : yet those children came into Paris and were welcomed by French families, and they followed the courses in the French schools, and when those children left France we found the parents who had kept them had received very grateful letters from German people who were interested in the children.

You see what a great step was made in common understanding between families that had so many points of difficulty between them. We think in our Association such a step could be generalised and we would not limit ourselves to the sending of correspondence or to the exchange of teachers, but we think it would be highly desirable that children from different countries should spend six months of their school time in the schools of another country for once or twice. It would produce such a change in their minds. It would remove so many prejudices that it would lead to a better understanding.

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On this idea I present in the name of our Association a resolution which I will read: "It is highly desirable that the World Federation of Education Associations should petition all Governments to promote and to help, morally and mentally, exchanges of children between families of workers of different countries, so that children in their school years would attend at least twice the schools of another country for six months."

We ask for this only for workers' families because we think that rich families can do it and practically do do it, but last year we experienced difficulties that we must overcome, and one of those difficulties was at first to obtain passports for the children coming to France. Another difficulty was the high cost of fares, and we think that Governments would be well inspired if they could remove all difficulties about passports or let these children travel freely in the country, and by staying some months in another place the children of the working class, who are to be perhaps the soldiers of to-morrow's armies, would be much better disposed to one another and they would not be led by those who had in past times manufactured Wars and who would perhaps manufacture Wars in future. So I move the resolution which I read just now and pray that this Congress would endorse it. (Applause.)

THE CHAIRMAN: I think we should now go on to Questions Four and Five, and I should like to link that up with point No. Four of last session. These questions are:

"At the San Francisco Conference the general idea of international correspondence among school children was endorsed. How may the Federation contribute more largely to the work?"

"May the work of school correspondence in addition to letters include booklets made by the children of the

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schools of different countries and sent to the schools in other lands, these books to include pictures of the school, its environments, its activities, together with the industries of the people of the community?"

"What has the movement among our young people done to further international understanding, and is it desirable for the Federation to assist in furthering it? If so, how?"

Dr DUNN, Director of the American Junior Red Cross : I hope you will give some attention to the exhibited material that is here, and I hope arrangements will be made whereby this material may be taken to the Assembly Hall for the Session on Friday.

THE CHAIRMAN : We shall try to arrange that.

Dr DUNN : I do not wish to take any time this afternoon except to give you one example. Out to Albania in the Balkans American children sent a number of books, including two volumes of geography textbooks prepared by a well-known American geography teacher. These Albanian boys have learned English and read the textbooks with great avidity, but they read a statement about Albania. In one it spoke of "A rugged mountainous country," and "one of the most ignorant countries." Their teacher in Albania suggested that they write to the author of the geography textbooks, which they did, and I read six letters from these boys that had the most delightful spirit you could imagine, saying "Of course, we know you did not get your information first-hand." This resulted in a letter from this geographer in America, "I thank you for your letter. I am now planning for a trip round the world and I shall certainly visit Albania, and I shall expect some of you boys to act as my guide throughout the country."

Miss THEODORA GEORGE, Paris, also spoke on the work of the Junior Red Cross.

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Miss ALICE M. KRACKOWIZER, New York: I wanted to say to the last gentleman speaker on the platform that the National Council of Geography Teachers in the United States is not self-centred as he seemed to indicate by his remark. We in the United States do not teach the United States first, last and all the time. We begin with the little children, teaching them about the lives of little children in other Nations. We teach that all grown-up people all over the world are dependent to a very large extent upon their environment; that they live in that environment; that they adjust themselves to it; that they try their very best to improve that environment; that when they do improve and make the most of that environment they usually make a contribution not only to their own country but to the different countries of the world, and that they demand and they get the respect of other Nations by making the best of what they give them. Then, when we use the folk dances, folk lore and folk games of various countries we make reference to the countries from which these came, and we think the children realise the beautiful thing also as well as the useful thing which comes out of the various Nations, and in that way we gradually as the children grow older teach them certain geography principles underlying human life which are, of course, the same the world over. That is the message I wish to give.

I wanted to say a word also in connection with the textbooks which Dr Dunn has brought out in such a fine way. A good many years ago I found this statement in a foreign textbook which I, being American born, resented. This accredited textbook in the schools said: "The Americans chew and spit." Now, you have an illustration of the kind of thing that happens in the textbooks of various Nations. No doubt, we say things just as undignified, and just as untrue, and just as unrepresentative of other Nations of the world. I believe that we must inculcate in the teachers we are training

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and in the children we are training to challenge the statements which they find about foreign people in their textbooks, to find out whether they are representative, fair and just, and whether they are telling about those Nations the things which we would have others think about us. That to me is one of the very important features in geography teaching. When a boy comes to me and says : " Why ! this supplementary geography you have given me is dated 1915 ; is that fact there still true ? " then I feel that boy has acquired a right attitude, because he realises that the world is moving on and that he must question what he finds in books.

The Work of the Junior Red Cross.

Summary of Address by Miss THEODORA GEORGE, Paris.

At its San Francisco meeting, the World Federation passed a resolution advocating international school correspondence, carried on by groups in the school and forming part of regular school work. The material which served as the basis for our discussion at San Francisco was a collection of school correspondence albums, forming part of the exchange being carried on under the auspices of the Red Cross Societies between school children in many nations of the world.

HOW DID THE RED CROSS COME TO BE IN THE SCHOOLS?

The Junior Red Cross was first started in Canada, September, 1914, then in New South Wales, Australia, in January, 1916, and in 1917 in the United States. In this latter country it was the definite purpose of the school people who organised it to give the children the training in service for others which they would have by actively participating in Red Cross work. In September, 1920, the League of Red Cross Societies established a Junior Red Cross division. The League, founded in the spring of 1919 by the Red Cross Societies of the five Allies, in

order to conserve for the betterment of mankind in time of peace the great forces, set in motion for the amelioration of suffering during the War, now consists of fifty-three national Red Cross Societies, with a central secretariat in Paris. At the meeting of their General Council in 1921, these Societies decided that the junior programme should accentuate the betterment of health, the development of civic consciousness and the fostering of international friendliness. There are now more than eight million Juniors in the Red Cross Societies of over thirty countries, and twenty-three nations publish their own Junior magazines.

In all this development, the Red Cross has not been the advocate of special methods; the Junior Red Cross is a voluntary organisation, through which children and young people find opportunity for self-expression; it is a spirit which quickens the life of the school. It has grown because the teachers have found in it that for which they have been searching.

Since its origin, in thank-you letters from European to American children, the whole of this field of action of Junior Red Cross School correspondence has enormously developed; not only are there forty-nine countries carrying on this exchange through the medium of their Red Cross Societies, but its educational possibilities become more and more evident.

Besides having been discussed in many national teachers' meetings since the San Francisco meeting of this Federation, inter-school correspondence was given a prominent place on the programme of the Warsaw Conference last August of the International Federation of Secondary Teachers.

In order to help in this education in friendliness, the Red Cross undertakes the expense of translation and expedition, but it is the teacher who must decide at what

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age the children should begin correspondence, with whom they should be put in contact, how to utilise the interest aroused in preparation of material, how best to use the albums received, in class, in exhibitions, in school museums, how often correspondence should be exchanged, what the content of the exchange should be. The Red Cross can be the disseminator of these opinions, but is not technically fitted to give this sort of advice. We only ask you to remember that we believe that "international correspondence can only achieve its real character through the ideal of peace and international friendship which inspires and vitalises the Junior Red Cross."

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Friday, 24th July.

TOPICS FOR DISCUSSION.

1. Dr DUNN'S Report on World Civics.
2. School Material for World Civics.
3. International Laws, Treaties, and League of Nations.

Mr R. BENNETT MILLER, M.A., Glasgow, occupied the Chair.

Dr MARTY, the Secretary, read the Minute of Meeting held on Wednesday, 22nd July.

World Civics.

Address by Dr ARTHUR W. DUNN, Washington, D.C., Director of the American Junior Red Cross.

Dr DUNN: At the World Conference on Education in San Francisco in 1923, a resolution was adopted advocating the development, in the schools of all nations, of organised instruction and training to which the term "World Civics" was tentatively applied. I have been asked to report progress toward the realisation of the object of the resolution.

The resolution proposed that "the World Conference on Education request the proper educational body of each country to outline for its own schools an appropriate course in world civics, such outlines to be presented to the next world conference for comparison and discussion." So far as I know, no such request was ever formally presented to any of the National Educational bodies, and no such outlines have been prepared. Neither has any Committee been created by the World Federation of Education Associations to follow up the recommendations of the San Francisco Conference on this subject.

Strictly speaking, therefore, so far as any action on

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the part of the Federation is concerned, the question of instruction and training in "World Civics" stands just where it did two years ago. It has not been lost sight of, however, and some developments along practical lines have occurred which, I think, have brought us to a stage nearer to a realisation of the objects which the resolutions contemplated. To some of these developments I wish to refer: but before doing so it is well to consider the meaning of the term "World Civics" and its relation to the objects of this World Federation as defined in its constitution, namely: "To secure international co-operation in educational enterprises, to foster the dissemination of information concerning education in all its forms among nations and peoples, to cultivate international goodwill, and to promote the interests of peace throughout the world."

I suppose that in every country training for citizenship is one of the recognised objectives of education. It should be said, in the first place, that "World Civics" should not be considered apart from such national civic training. On the contrary, it should have its foundations in the training of an intelligent, loyal citizenship in each of the component nations of the world community; but a citizenship that shall at the same time possess an intelligent understanding of international relations and responsibilities, and an attitude of mind and habits of social action that will promote international goodwill and co-operation. A Hungarian child well stated the case in a message to American children: "We like to think of ourselves," she said, "as the stone carriers in a great army of workers building a temple of human love, but we believe that this temple will only fulfil its true destiny if its foundation stones are formed from love of one's own country."

An American writer has said that "the single public end of a common public education in America must hereafter be neither life, nor the getting of a living, but

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living together." We may conceive of "World Civics" as an effort to give the children and youth of all nations a body of information, and to cultivate in them attitudes and habits, that will promote in an organised way this end of "living together" internationally, as well as in nations and in smaller groups.

In defining human freedom, Woodrow Wilson once drew an analogy with a machine that "runs free" because all its parts are so adjusted to one another that friction is reduced to a minimum. "Human freedom," he said, "consists in perfect adjustments of human interests, and human activities and human energies." This also defines peace. It is only through human freedom, so defined, that world peace can be achieved. "World Civics" seeks to cultivate in youth this positive constructive conception of peace, not as a mere negation of war, but as a state of organised harmonious working together for common ends. It also seeks to give to youth training that will tend to reduce international friction to a minimum.

I do not know how it is in many other countries, but in my own country it is quite customary to find in the courses of study of our schools a special subject of study called "Civics." Until recently this subject was confined almost entirely to our secondary, or high schools, and consisted of a formal textbook study of our American Government, and of the duties and privileges of citizenship in its narrower political sense. An intelligent citizen must have knowledge of this sort, and I suppose that such knowledge is acquired, to a greater or less extent, and more or less systematically, by the boys and girls in the schools of all countries.

"World Civics," it seems to me, should afford to boys and girls in all nations a similar body of information regarding the official mechanism of international relations. I refer to such things as the elements, at least of international law and the arrangements that exist for diplomatic

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and other negotiations and co-operation between Governments. International customs regulations and postal regulations are examples of details that might be included in such a study. An understanding of such serious attempts at international co-operation as that represented by the League of Nations should be acquired. Moreover, it seems to me that it would be conducive to international understanding if the boys and girls in each nation should acquire some information regarding Governments other than their own, their resemblance and points of difference, and the reasons therefor.

But I am of the opinion that a discussion of this aspect of "World Civics" would be more appropriate in the section devoted to secondary education than in this section of elementary education. For it seems to me obvious that the amount of information that can profitably be given to the younger children on such subjects as those to which I have referred is extremely limited. At any rate, I have referred to this aspect of civic training merely in order to emphasise the fact that "World Civics," as I understand it, and as I think it was understood at the San Francisco Convention, must include much more than this, and that it must reach the younger children as well as the older.

More important than a knowledge of international law and of the mechanism and methods by which Governments officially deal with one another, is an understanding of the common interests and purposes and ideals and aspirations that exist among men in spite of the superficial differences that first strike the eye; an understanding of, and a friendly interest in, these very differences themselves as mere varying expressions of identical purposes common to all alike; an appreciation of the interdependence of nations and peoples for the realization of their common purposes and ideals, and of the consequent necessity for world-wide understanding and co-operation for their realization.

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If you will permit another reference to our experience in the United States, there has developed there, in the past few years, a new type of civics instruction which extends down into the grades below the high schools, and which aims to give boys and girls some conception of the nature of their community life and of their own relation to it. In this course the organisation and operation of government are studied, but always in their relation to the purposes and conditions of the community life which they are designed to serve. This new type of civics study has come to be known as "Community Civics," because of its chief characteristic, which is to cultivate in boys and girls a community consciousness and a community conscience. So far, the study of community civics in the United States has applied almost entirely to the local communities and the national community of which the children are a part. Only here and there do we find textbooks that definitely take account of the larger world-wide community. But I predict, in the near future, in America, the appearance of new civics textbooks that will not only include more adequate information about international government relations, but that will aim to cultivate a community consciousness and conscience of world-wide scope.

It is vitally important, however, that we should think of "World Civics" not as an independent, isolated subject, injected at one or more points in the curriculum, but as a phase of education to be taken into account in relation to the curriculum as a whole. Geography, history, literature, art, science, as well as civics, all afford opportunity for the creation of an international atmosphere and for fostering world-wide understanding and appreciation. This leads us directly into the problem of textbook materials, prepared "with scrupulous accuracy and in a spirit of fairness and goodwill," available for this educational end. It is a problem which was discussed earnestly

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at the San Francisco meeting two years ago, and one of the solutions of which will, I hope, be put definitely forward at this Conference. I can do no more than refer to the problem here. Will you permit me to report, however, that one of the most gratifying developments in the United States, during the past two or three years, is the rapidly increasing literature available for classroom use, and designed to foster international understanding and appreciation? In my position as director of the American Junior Red Cross I am receiving numerous and increasing requests for materials assembled in my office from all over the world through Junior Red Cross channels. "World Civics" will become effective only when it represents one of the essential points of view for all instruction, from the earliest grades to the highest.

We now pass to what I believe is the most vital factor in world civics. I am one of those who believe that children "learn to do by doing"; that formal instruction derives its full value only as it is clearly related to the actual experience of the pupil or is interpreted in terms of that experience. We used to teach civics in the United States with the thought uppermost in our minds that at some time in the future the pupils would become citizens, and that it was necessary to supply them with a fund of information that at that future time they might find useful. To-day we teach civics with the thought uppermost that the children are now young citizens, enjoying certain privileges in, and bearing certain obligations to, the community of which they are a part. The community itself, of which the children are a part, has become the real object of study, the textbook and the teacher being guides to their own observation and interpreters of their own experience. The pupils are encouraged to participate in community activities, to co-operate with others and with government itself in promoting community interests. "Civics" has thus become a mode of civic training, in which activity as well as instruction holds a vital place.

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By it the pupils not only acquire information, but also form habits of social action and social attitudes of mind.

I believe that world civics will be little more than a meaningless phrase unless, along with well-organised and persistent instruction about a world community, it also affords to the boys and girls of the world actual experience in international contact and co-operative enterprises. It is because of my belief in this that I have given the past six or seven years to the development of the Junior Red Cross in my own country and internationally. The Junior Red Cross is to-day an organisation of the boys and girls in the schools of more than thirty nations, representing every continent and many islands of the seas, with an aggregate membership of eight or ten million boys and girls. Within the two weeks that I have been in Europe, Germany and Spain have added themselves to the list of nations organising their own national Junior Red Cross Societies or Sections. In all of these thirty-odd nations, the purposes of the Junior Red Cross are identical, namely, co-operation in service for others and the fostering of international goodwill. In all of them the members of the Junior Red Cross are engaged in similar programmes of service activities with most profound loyalty to their respective countries. They are all bound together in an international co-operative movement through their membership in the League of Red Cross Societies, through the publication of more than a score of national Junior Red Cross magazines, in nearly as many languages, which are exchanged and translated, and through a well-organised system of international correspondence.

The principal instrument by which the Junior Red Cross fosters international understanding and goodwill is its system of International School Correspondence. By it the schools enrolled in Junior Red Cross in several nations exchanged letters, and a wide variety of materials of the highest educative value. The several national Red Cross organisations, and the League of Red Cross

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Societies in which the national organizations are federated, afford a mechanism, already set up and functioning, for administering the exchange on a large scale with continuity, regularity and economy.

As a means of fostering international understanding and goodwill the potentialities of this correspondence through Junior Red Cross channels inhere, however, not so much in the mechanical facilities afforded for the exchange, which are unique, as in certain of its vital characteristics. Foremost among these is the sense of membership, on the part of the correspondents, in a common organisation, and of participation in common programmes of service and goodwill. It is this that gives "heart, soul, and deep purpose" to the correspondence, such as would not inhere in a mere exchange of letters unsupported by this sense of solidarity.

The correspondence itself gives abundant testimony to this fact. "It is proved that youth is meant to reconcile the different nations," writes an Austrian school to a school in America; "therefore, let's be brothers; away with the barriers, and give us your hand through the Junior Red Cross!" And from Czechoslovakia comes the message: "Sometimes we go out for a walk and we sing with all our strength the Junior song. We like the idea that all Juniors all over the world are singing the same."

At a meeting in Hungary last year a child of twelve said: "Three whole years ago we were organized as a company in a great world army of Juniors. Since then we have been learning to know the noble ideals of our organization, and trying to live according to them in order to be worthy of the badge we wear so proudly. The idea of 'Happy Childhood the World Over' delights us. This is the thing we want. So we try to lighten the days of Hungarian children as far as lies within our power." And at the same meeting an older girl said: "It is our aim to work, not with the passing enthusiasm of a fire of straw, but with the steady gleam of a sanctuary light."

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Notwithstanding its international aims, the Junior Red Cross can be of service, we believe, only if it furnishes spiritual substance to a people by deepening the national consciousness.

Two years ago a wonderful chorus of Czechoslovak children went to America "to cement the friendship" between Czechoslovak and American children, and quickly sang their way into American hearts. "Do you know why you like our songs?" asked their leader. "It is because we sing them from our hearts!" And so now, if we ask why there should be any peculiar efficacy in the correspondence between schools enrolled in the Junior Red Cross as a means of promoting international understanding and goodwill, the answer may be found, in large measure, in a letter from this same Czechoslovak school which sent the singers: "From Germany came to us the calling of the suffering children for help. And so we did not mind what was in the depths of our souls from the days of the old hostility between Bohemians and Germans, and we have done as the feelings of the human heart commanded us. . . . We were pleased by the knowledge that we were fulfilling our promise to the American children that, in every action on behalf of the suffering, we shall stand by to help, gratefully remembering that they have once helped us."

Another vital feature of the international correspondence of the Junior Red Cross is the extent to which it permeates and colours all school work. It is *school* correspondence. Entire classes, entire schools, share in the enjoyment and use of the materials received, and in the preparation of those to be sent back. These materials include, not only letters, but also photographs of scenes, costumes, occupations, famous men and women, architecture; original sketches; specimens of school work in all departments and of all grades; art designs illustrative of national art motifs; historical and biographical sketches; folk lore and folk songs; descriptions of industries and

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industrial products, often accompanied by samples; specimens of native flora and other natural objects; dolls dressed in native costumes; series of postage stamps; descriptions of home and school life, and of customs in general; and many other things of the widest imaginable variety.

Even from this partial catalogue it is not difficult to see how much fresh materials, direct from personal correspondents, will help to foster understanding, and will add interest and vitality to practically every subject in the curriculum. Lack of space forbids elaboration of this point, but a single example will be suggestive. It is found in a letter from a school in Botosani, Rumania, to a school in Indiana:

"Dear Friends:

"We are in the third class and we have learned already about America, but we must frankly admit that we know nothing about Indiana because we have not enough time to learn about each state separately.

"We realise once more how useful this inter-school correspondence is. It teaches us a lot of things in such a pleasant way. We studied carefully the map you sent. What perfect squares and right angles your states form! They are almost like geometrical figures, especially, Colorado, Kansas, etc. In Rumania it is very different. We also have states; we call them "judete," but they are far from forming perfect squares or right angles like yours. Some are much larger than others, some wide, others narrow, all crooked somehow. Of course the explanation is that you are a new country and were able to divide your country just as it seemed best, whereas we have many old traditions and had to count with them. You could do as you pleased and we simply could not; that is the only explanation we could think of. Are we right?

"I think our ancestors would have risen from their tombs if we had arbitrarily tried to separate them from

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their brethren. Here, at every step there is something that reminds us of an historical event, at each step there is either a tomb or something that reminds us of the past that claims its rights. Perhaps you have not all this past to count with and that accounts for your perfectly formed states, so much more perfect than ours.

"We thought you might also like to have a map of our country and that you might like to know where Botosani lies. . . ."

The preparation of materials to be sent to friends abroad, no less than the materials received from them, affords the basis for endless projects in every curriculum subject and every grade. For example: A school in Fitchburg, Mass., received from abroad a large box containing sea fans, sea weeds, coral, sponges, sea eggs, shells, seeds, and a variety of miscellaneous things. One article of each kind was mounted on cardboard and two exhibits placed in the hall where every child could see them each day. These exhibits were also available for classroom use.

Letters of appreciation were written to the foreign children, and a spelling lesson went with the writing of the letters. Geography lessons were based on the gifts of coral, sponges, and other sea products, and correlation made with language work through the writing of stories about the various articles, and further spelling lessons. Dried seed in the collection afforded an aim for nature lessons. During the year articles from the collection were given as prizes for good work, and the school Christmas tree obtained some of its decorations from the same source.

The children were not slow in proposing a return gift. A quantity of dried seeds on hand suggested to the girls the making of necklaces, but the seeds could not be pierced by ordinary means at hand. Consulted by some of the boys, the instructor in the shop at the Normal School offered to teach them the use of a jeweller's drill.

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A group of sixth-grade boys learned the process and drilled a thousand of the red and brown seeds. Third and fourth grade girls strung the beads.

The same girls also designed pendants to be made from cement and decorated with the seeds. They wrote stories of their experiences, and the writer of the best story was rewarded with one of the pendants.

Some of the best specimens of handwork and drawing done in the school were selected for the gift box, as also some toys purchased by the children. Nine dolls were purchased with pennies earned by the children in eight rooms, and the dolls dressed in American style. The children wrote stories of their experiences in earning the money. A local mill contributed gingham for clothing the dolls, and fifth and sixth grade girls did the planning and sewing. Kodak pictures of the dressed dolls and their dressmakers were sent to the head of the milling company together with a letter of appreciation. A visiting day was planned, and each doll was permitted to spend the day in the room it represented.

First and second grade children made attractive transparencies from delicately coloured papers, the third and fourth grade collected some of their best school work into a booklet, and a collection of local wild flowers was pressed, mounted and made into a booklet, the paper for all being given by a local paper manufacturer, who received letters of thanks. A "Fitchburg Book" was also made, containing picture postcards of local buildings and parks. To this collection of gifts the superintendent of schools added six copies of "Child Life," a primer used in the city schools.

In the light of this example, much might be said of the value of international school correspondence projects as a means of vitalising the various subjects of the curriculum as such. The point of emphasis for the moment, however, is the extent to which such projects enlist the interest of all grades, from the kindergarten to the high

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school, and make international understanding and goodwill a conspicuous motive in the regular curricular activities of the city schools.

It has already been suggested that the true end of a public education is "neither life, nor earning a living, but living together." There is a need for a type of education that will give greater prominence to this end, and that will interpret it internationally as well as nationally and locally. Textbook instruction must be made to contribute to this end; but textbook instruction means little except as it is based upon, or interpreted by, actual experience on the part of the pupil. International school correspondence, as here described, affords experience in purposeful international relations in the light of which existing curricular studies may become increasingly effective for the promotion of international understanding and goodwill.

DISCUSSION.

Mr BULKELEY, Burma: I am in general agreement with what Dr Dunn has told us as to what it is desirable to do in elementary schools and the best way of doing it. During the last ten or fifteen years I have engaged in a great deal of discussion and seen a great amount of experiment in Burma in the teaching of civics in secondary schools, and to a lesser extent in elementary schools. In particular a group of National Schools was started four or five years ago in opposition to our State system of education, and they are now happily included as part of our State system of education and are receiving grants. The need for civics teaching has been strongly expressed. Perhaps some of my recollections of the difficulties found there may be useful. One thing was that from the beginning we were troubled to find textbooks, and incidentally I may mention that we found a good deal of difficulty in using American textbooks in the matter of language. In teaching a technical subject your voca-

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bulary must be precise, and American textbooks on civics do not use the same words for constitutional administration as we do. That is a practical difficulty that makes the task of the examiner examining on a textbook bought in America extremely difficult, and it is also extremely difficult for the children. Perhaps it is to the point to instance many of the difficulties we have had in this Convention in understanding the meaning of items on the Agenda which are clear enough to Americans and are not so clear to English readers. I think we are all agreed that elementary civics must begin with the home school and the home town and with the home State, just as Dr Dunn has told us, and I was very glad to hear him admit the limitations of the child mind.

I should think most of us who are practical teachers were amazed to see question Three: "In the study of international contacts, is it advisable to include a study of such special movements as the codification of international laws, treaties and agreements, courts of international justice, League of Nations, etc.?" In the secondary section the other day it was felt that those were impracticable even for secondary schools. So I think we are agreed that we can do very little on definite world civics to elementary school children. (Applause.) I do think, however, that this Association might do very useful work by defining the small amount of material in connection with world civics which might reasonably be imparted at the elementary school stage and putting it in a convenient form. That might very likely find its way into a useful pamphlet at some time for general circulation, but I think little can be done in teaching world civics, anyhow, to elementary school children as a special subject, and I think Dr Dunn has very properly indicated the way it should be taught, viz.: to consider children as part of the Community, and to learn their world civics through their social attitude and social ser-

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vice in their own schools and also through subjects, mainly geography and history, of the general curriculum.

Mrs LAURA PUFFER MORGAN, U.S.A., Secretary of the National Council for the Prevention of War: I want to give very briefly two or three illustrations of practical methods that are being used in teaching world civics, first, in regard to international relationships in the primary schools among the very young children. (Exhibits posters). This is an example of a set of posters which has been published by the National Child Welfare, New York, and is being distributed by the National Council for the Prevention of War. The purpose is given in a little verse under the pictures. Then, we have a set of posters shewing a little girl from India, a little girl from France, a little boy from Italy and a little boy from Spain. In every case one of the chief pleasant characteristics of the country is taken and explained to the children. These posters have been made the basis of pageants, and these pageants have been used in connection with the celebration of Goodwill Day in the schools. These posters are used in many of the schools and in the school libraries.

Another way in which international friendship is being taught is by the Camp Fire girls and Girl Scouts. (Exhibits magazines). These two magazines are examples of *The American Girl*, the official magazine of the Girl Scouts. They publish one international number in March each year. It is a very stimulating and interesting little magazine, full of stories of young girls from every country. These are examples of *Every Land*, which is published by one of the many Societies and is a monthly magazine of friendship for boys and girls. There is also a magazine of the Camp Fire Girls.

To come to the question of textbooks, may I speak of the Association of University Women which has now started a project, which will take two or three years, to make a complete survey of all the history textbooks in

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America used in the public schools. We are first making a complete list of all the history textbooks used, and then we are going to have these evaluated by a Committee of Experts, and then we shall be in a position to remedy the difficulty which exists.

May I now come to one suggestion of teaching world civics through love of one's own country which is being employed in both churches and schools? Many of the schools of Cincinnati and St Louis have put posters up. These posters are of two sizes. I beg you not to be frightened by the heading "America First." These words are taken from a sermon which was preached on these words by Bishop Oldham. I want to put this poster up where you can all see it. What we are teaching is—America first in service and co-operation, and America first in a crusade for a warless world.
(Applause.)

Madam DREYFUS BARNEY, International Council of Women: What I have to say to you to-day refers specially to the third subject, but, I think, we have so interwoven the first, second and third that it is all very much the same. The International Council of Women only want on account of the very many countries that form their organisation—thirty-nine countries representing 36,000,000 women—to select a policy that is not what I would call a mushroom grown up in the night. So our peace policy that we have accepted is the League of Nations and the International Court of Justice.

As you no doubt know, the Assembly at Geneva two years ago decided that they would see what they could do to teach the aim and the history of the League of Nations in the schools of the fifty-three countries comprised in the League. This year it is to come up still another time. Answers have come from a great list of countries, China, Japan, Italy, England, France—in fact,

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a much too long list to enumerate here, and finally I suppose in a year or two all the countries will have put it on their official programme.

I want to take France and what they are doing. In 1920, the Ministry of Education—and you know France is very highly centralised and it has a very strong Ministry of Education that gives out the programmes—decided to put the League of Nations, its aim and history into the primary elementary school, and the higher elementary schools. At the same time, it was put into the normal schools. We all know that France is very fearful on the question of security. France is always considered as a very Nationalistic country. Unless France had felt that the teaching of the history and aim of the League of Nations was a method of promoting international co-operation, you may rest assured she never would have introduced the subject into her schools. (Applause.) Then, in 1923, it was put into the secondary schools and there is a whole list where you find it in the higher instruction of the University. I have here a paper in French which I would be glad to give to anybody. They teach it in the elementary school in civics and in history, and in the elementary schools they teach it in history and philosophy.

I heard with a great deal of interest what Dr Dunn and Mr Bulkeley said with regard to civics. France has found it easier with children to add it on to the subject being taught. I have here a book on civics and they have added on this very thing. They begin by asking—is arbitration possible? and then they speak of the Hague and the essays children must write. Then they lead up to the War and the Treaty and the League of Nations, and after each chapter there are essays the children are to write. In France, this teaching begins at the age of nine, but in Czecho-Slovakia, they begin it already at the age of six.

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We do not want the child when it closes the textbooks to leave the subject there. So we have collected slides on this question. A child understands justice. We have found that with children in the games they play, in giving illustrations of how unless you bring a thing to concentration and to decision of that kind, we all begin over again. Very young children understand that and very easily. (Applause.) We have slides with regard to the League of Nations. This is not propaganda work; this is history. Member States can say what they wish. The League of Nations exists. It has to be mentioned. It is not a bubble in the air that has burst; it is growing. It has very deep roots away back through history as far back as science. There are pictures of the League of Nations with such simple language and vivid illustrations that the child understands.

A young student of the University was so interested in this question and was so anxious to reach the classes that he has just left that he has created a game which is called in French "Organisation des Nations." It corresponds to the English game of cards. This young man has printed this with his own money, and he has not got much money. I mention this to show you what conviction there is in this young generation of the need for such teaching.

Mr BARRAS: Might I suggest that we leave item No. Three out of our discussions. We are dealing with elementary children and I could not conceive of children studying such movements as the codification of international laws, treaties and agreements, courts of international justice, League of Nations, etc., whatever the etc., may mean. I suggest to you that we cut it out and get to business on No. Two and No. Four as the other is outside an elementary school curriculum. (Applause.)

A delegate seconded.

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Dr HENRY N. M'CRACKEN, U.S.A.: In respect of this motion the Conference has, of course, power to excise from its Agenda any questions at all, but I beg the Conference to remember that this is a World Federation and that its deliberations are not confined to any Nation or group of Nations. I hold a document in my hand published, July 1925, entitled A.12 Publication, League of Nations. This document contains communications from all the constituent members of the League of Nations. I regret for my own part that my own country is not one of them. (Applause.) In this document there are statements to the effect that this subject must be taught and taught by law in various countries of the world. We may excise this question from the elementary education in the school, but we must not do it in ignorance of the fact that such education is by law compulsory. On page nineteen there is a document from the Minister Plenipotentiary of Japan.

THE CHAIRMAN: In view of the explanation would you desire to press your motion?

Mr BARRAS: I am not pressing it, but I do feel it is impossible to teach it.

Miss CONWAY: Would Mr Barras exclude the League of Nations from his motion?

THE CHAIRMAN: Mr Barras has withdrawn his motion.

Miss ETNA V. LEIGHTON, New York: I must point out certain dangers to you. We are talking about the material, but we are neglecting to remember the human material. It is well enough for us to remember here what we mean by world civics, but we must make it absolutely clear to the teachers of the world what we mean by world civics. We must make it certain that whatever we send out is in addition and not in substitution for the regular civics courses.

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It has been my privilege to help to revise civics, and it was discovered we were teaching everything but the government of the United States; and the National Security League, which I represent, with the American Bar Association have managed to correct that by law. So now the government will be taught to the children of the United States.

If you here suggest that in the lower grades you just teach neighbourliness you will be facing the condition we faced when half our pupils were leaving school before getting any secondary education. May I tell you this story? Mrs A. said to Mrs B., "My daughter is going to High School. She is studying there. She is even studying civics." "Civics!" said Mrs B., "What in the world is civics?" "Well," said Mrs A., "civics is the science of interfering in the City's business." If we teach civics at our international group so that our children can interfere, we must be careful we do not teach civics according to Mrs A.'s definition and to love the other countries so much that they will want to reform it. I do not know how much we have in common with modern Athens, but in America we are very much like the ancient Athenians—we are always seeking after some new thing, and in our enthusiasm for the new thing we are likely to forget the old. Can you not find some word besides civics? What is it you mean when you suggest that the teachers of the world shall add world civics to what they now teach? (Applause.)

Mrs HANNA RENSTROM, Sweden: I am very shy when I stand here because I think I will misuse your language. This question seems a little different for the small countries of Europe compared with the other countries. In the United States it may be very easy to teach world civics to elementary school children because you have with you and near to you old nations. You can point out to the children and say "We have

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them all here; you see them." In our country, and I suppose in other small countries, the children at the early age before twelve years of age when most of the children are in elementary schools have not got their minds opened yet and have not come so much in contact with life that their minds are open to such things as treaties and agreements and those things. I think we can do best in teaching them civics by not giving them special text-books—(applause)—but by giving this instruction in connection with geography and history and even with morals and religion when we are teaching them.

For instance, I suggest that for the smaller countries first they should co-operate with their neighbours. It is often there that you see the conflict between the nations. It is often the nearest neighbours who cannot agree. It is often from there that the spark is coming that will make the fire. I think at least in Europe we would benefit most if every country tried to let the children correspond with and come to a fair appreciation and understanding of the people in their own neighbourhood.

Long before this Federation was founded we worked to let the children of one country know the children of another country. We have exchanged visits and still exchange visits. Children in the North are exchanging visits with children in another country, both in the homes and the schools, and many unions and associations work for the same purpose, and there is also correspondence between the children, and that work has created a spirit of understanding and brotherhood between these countries, who have grown wider in sympathy and been more broad-minded year after year. Let us, therefore, think first of the nearest neighbourhood, our own country, and then of our nearest neighbours. (Applause.)

Miss M'LARTY, Educational Institute of Scotland : As a teacher in an elementary school in Scotland I have

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come to express my doubts, perhaps not to give you much help. I have had the feeling these last two days when I have been with the Elementary Group that we have been attempting too much. I would like to stand here for the child's right to be a child. (Applause.) It may be that the term "elementary" in some countries covers a wider range than it does in Scotland, but I do feel that International Law and, if I may say it—although I am a member of the League of Nations in Scotland and an active member—that to the small child definite instruction in the League of Nations to my mind (and I have tried it) is almost useless. (Hear, hear and applause.) I also, living in a post-War world, have a horror of slogans; and I have a feeling that civics taught as a specific subject in school will in some cases descend to sentimentalism; and that slogans and words and stunts will be developed in the children, who will not be able to analyse some of the matter that is put before them in the Press of the country. We wish to train a race in our schools to-day which will examine what is put forward on any print, because we do suffer to-day from the hypnotism of the printed word. (Applause.) I think the only way in which we can teach civics in the elementary school is by living goodwill among our fellows. (Applause.) International goodwill to me is an enlargement of capacity in the human being. It is a higher development in the human race, and how are you going to expect it from the little child, who is an individualist even in his own home. You bring him into the school community, you have to put him into line to live as a social human being and then with his own town and with the town of his own Shire.

I was very pleased to hear the delegate from Sweden say that one of the ways to teach civics was to have a spirit of rivalry to our neighbouring country, even to our neighbouring county. Have you noticed how children scoff at the accent of the neighbouring county? It is

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a good thing to let them see how the neighbouring country are perhaps scoffing at their accent, and instead of this enlargement of capacity in the teaching of your geography and history and literature, you can put into the minds of your children a sympathetic understanding of the other countries of the world, and I think that is a proper way to attack the problem of civics. I do think that all the talk about teaching world civics in elementary schools is a waste of time. We are only preparing a foundation upon which a structure of education may be built, and the only international goodwill that we can teach is in our daily life with the children, teaching them to bear and forbear and understand other people. (Loud applause.)

Professor SASAKI, Japan : In Japanese schools direct and systematic instruction has been given since 1872. I have been engaged in teaching for more than twenty-two years in various kinds of schools, elementary, secondary and normal schools, for boys and girls. From my own experience as a teacher I have come to the following conclusions : first, that children are deeply inspired by moral facts; second, that such moral instruction cannot be given by a mere explanation in abstract terms—(applause)—but by telling stories of concrete facts; third, that the essence of such instruction or moral sentiments is, in short, sympathy or love of others in its broadest sense. From these conclusions I would like to mention two points which I think most important as to the instruction of stories. First, in selecting stories the following conditions are desired—(a) that the content of the stories must be distinctly moral; (b) that they ought to contain some scientific and religious and moral elements. I think that such instruction is an opening to moral development as a whole. Material must be taken not only from one's own country but from other countries as well. In Japanese textbooks on morals we have stories of many famous men and women of Europe

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and America as well as of Asia. Second, the story should be taken from the following sources: (a) Fairy tales; (b) fables; (c) simple fiction stories; (d) legends; (e) stories of animals; (f) nature stories; (g) history; (h) stories of contemporary men and women. These sources have characteristic value of their own for moral education. I believe, from my own experience, that these kinds of stories are all very effective to the teacher who treats them skilfully. I hope it will be soon possible for stories to be used for teachers all over the world. (Applause.)

MR BARRAS: All my arguments have been backed up by the very people who opposed me. A gentleman behind me who brought this document allowed me to see it and it says "Relations with foreign countries." How can you do better to achieve our object than by the simple pictorial posters we were shewn? The moment you begin to systematise—and that is what I am up against—you defeat your own object. It is all in item No. Two, the inclusion within the study of the elementary principles of International law. But put item No. Three before any lawyer and say you are going to teach it to children from six years of age upwards, and he will laugh at you—particularly an international lawyer. The moment you get to international laws you defeat your own object, but you can teach some beautiful principles.

THE MARCHIONESS OF ABERDEEN submitted the resolutions of the Committee on Resolutions.

1. That the World Federation of Education Associations affirms its belief in the potency of Goodwill Day as a factor in creating and fostering an international understanding among the children of the world, and that it recommends that affiliated associations secure, where necessary or desirable, national or official sanction for the observance of such a day from their government

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and education authorities; and, further, that steps be taken in each country to prepare for the teachers an outlined programme as a suggestive guide.

(NOTE : The World Federation of Education Associations suggests with reference to Resolution 1 that the affiliated and other associations be asked to report to this Federation upon the most suitable single date for Goodwill Day and that upon the basis of these reports the World Federation of Education Associations have authority to select such a date.)

2. That the World Federation of Education Associations affirms its belief that geography, history and training in citizenship should be taught not only from a national point of view but also from a modern sociological and international point of view.
3. That the World Federation of Education Associations endorses movements and committees which establish international contacts among school children through correspondence, exchange of school work and interchange of pupils of suitable age between countries. To promote the more economical exchange of materials, the World Federation of Education Associations shall use its best efforts to secure accommodation in the postal rates.
4. That textbooks for the elementary schools of the world be prepared descriptive of child life in all lands and setting forth in brief and simple form the best that each nation has achieved.
5. That in view of the fact that it is of the utmost importance that teachers of all nations should themselves possess the international outlook the World Federation recommends the encouragement of special courses in teacher-training institutions and in Universities and strongly recommends to its affiliated associations the promotion of plans for travel and interchange of teachers.

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Mrs FINCK, U.S.A. moved and Miss ROBERTSON, Canada, seconded the acceptance of the Resolutions.

Mr ELDER, Scottish Trades Union Congress: Might I ask that some explanation be given as to the intentions of the special Committee when they use the phrase "where necessary or desirable" in connection with the institution of Goodwill Day in the various countries?

LADY ABERDEEN: The words "where necessary or desirable" are simply inserted because the educational systems vary in different countries. In some cases you would get the central government authority, and in other cases local government authorities, and it is where it is necessary or desirable to obtain this sanction that it be obtained according to the law and practice of these countries.

Mr ELDER: I beg to move as an amendment to resolution One that the preparation of the programme dealing with the observance of Goodwill Day be remitted not to the individual associations but that it be considered by the Executive of the World Federation itself.

THE CHAIRMAN: That goes without saying; these things will be considered in plenary session to-morrow.

Mr ELDER: If this goes as it is, it is the opinion of this Committee that the preparation of the lessons to be given on Goodwill Day is a preparation which this Committee thinks should be carried out by individual organisations. My opinion is that this Committee should express its opinion that the preparation of that plan should be carried out by the Executive of the World Federation.

Miss CONWAY: Does the passing of this Resolution imply that Goodwill Day shall be kept on a uniform date by every country?

LADY ABERDEEN: No. That was discussed by the

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Committee and it was decided that it should not be so, that liberty should be given to each country to decide according to what they thought best.

Mr ELDER: That is the whole point. Are we to understand that the words, "where necessary or desirable," are included with the object not only of considering the methods of government power but as to the day on which Goodwill Day is to be observed? It seems to me that unless this Committee is going to be very definite with regard to an international day and a date which is going to be observed internationally, it is not going to be an international Goodwill Day.

Miss CONWAY: I should like to speak against the motion of Mr Elder that this should be dealt with by the Executive Committee. I think it would be a possible tying up of the whole thing. If we are not very careful, we are not only going to tie ourselves up but also our children. I think in this thing it will be better to let the teachers have their own way of doing it and their own method of doing it than if they have a prescribed programme. I beg Mr Elder to believe that the teachers are as anxious about goodwill among the Nations as he is.

Mr ELDER: I withdraw the amendment. I beg to move this amendment, that Goodwill Day be held on an agreed date throughout the world, and that International Goodwill Day be held on the same date in the various countries.

A DELEGATE: I second. I think it will be very helpful to the universal spirit which all of us teachers wish to foster in our schools if we were to know that on that day all the teachers were speaking to the children in the school about the same thing.

Mr DEMPSTER: I would move that we make it a strong recommendation.

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THE CHAIRMAN: Are you agreeing to that?

Mr ELDER: No.

A LADY DELEGATE: I do not know whether at San Francisco a day was chosen, May eighteenth, by this body as a day which should be recognised as Goodwill Day. I understood that the action two years ago was final.

Dr MARTY: Two years ago, May eighteenth was selected. It has not been universally observed. I think the Committee which drafted these Resolutions were all of the opinion that from an ideal standpoint it would be magnificent if we could get all countries to unite on one day, but if we cannot get a whole loaf we will take half a loaf, so the Committee on Resolutions did not emphasise one day, but left it open. If countries could not get observance of Goodwill Day on May eighteenth it might be observed on any day that country might see fit. We know in some of our countries in all probability the Education Authorities will object to the addition of a day to the outstanding anniversaries. We aim at the ideal but we will take what we can get in the meantime.

THE CHAIRMAN: Is Mr Elder now satisfied that the point he desires to bring before the World Federation of Education Associations will be brought before them to-morrow?

Mr ELDER: I cannot subscribe to the idea that the only way to get agreement is to smother differences. I accept the intentions of the Committee.

THE CHAIRMAN: We will have a vote on the amendment.

Miss CONWAY: Is it to be May eighteenth?

Mr ELDER: No, one date for the world.

On a vote by shew of hands, the Chairman declared the Resolutions carried as they stood.

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It was moved and seconded that the Resolutions be taken together. An amendment was moved and seconded that they be taken *seriatim*. On a shew of hands, the motion was adopted.

Mr EMSLIE: A point of order. You have voted the Resolutions as against Resolutions plus Amendment, and they are now the substantive motion.

THE CHAIRMAN: I rule that we have come to a complete decision.

Mr ELDER: I move that the Chairman's ruling be upheld.

Mr EMSLIE: I wish to enter my dissent.

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Chairman.—Mr W. E. WING, Portland, Maine,
U.S.A.

Secretary.—Miss MARJORIE WISE, London, assisted
by Mr PETER COMRIE, M.A., B.Sc., F.R.S.E.,
Rector, The Academy, Leith.

SUMMARY OF THE PROCEEDINGS OF THE THREE MEETINGS.

By Miss MARJORIE WISE, London, Group Secretary.

The discussion in this group centred mainly round the curriculum. It appeared to be the general opinion of the meetings that every subject could and should be taught from an international point of view. Languages become increasingly necessary in a narrowing world. National History should not give place to World History but should find its culmination therein. A sounder, worthier teaching of Geography is needed to elucidate this history and to give a more exact knowledge of the peoples of the world. Science, which is unquestionably international in its scope, should so be taught that the pupils realise the contributions to human welfare that have been, are being and will be made by all nations. Last but not least, Art in all its forms was recognised as a great power for the encouragement of a real sympathy between nations.

The responsibility of teachers was continually emphasised and it was recognised further that the first essential was the development of this international viewpoint in the teachers themselves. To this end it was suggested that various books of reference be prepared, but it was urged that the most important factor was the fostering of the exchange of teachers in all parts of the world.

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Tuesday, 21st July.

Mr W. E. WING, Portland, Maine, in the Chair.

THE CHAIRMAN: It is not necessary for me to remind you of the importance of this meeting or that we must make the most of the two hours which have been assigned to us for to-day, for to-morrow, and for Friday. There is an old saying that "Great oaks from little acorns grow," and we are here to plant a little acorn. Let us plant that acorn with deliberation. It is our job to furnish to the delegate assembly recommendations on the topics which have been set up by them. It seems, perhaps, best that we have committees appointed either to consider these questions separately or as groups.

After a preliminary discussion Mr S. B. LUCAS, Highgate, London: Association of Assistant Masters in Secondary Schools, moved formally that half an hour be devoted to the discussion of each of these three points before appointing the Committee.

THE CHAIRMAN: It is moved and seconded that we devote half an hour to the discussion of these subjects before appointing a committee. That is adopted. We will proceed to the discussion of the first topic: "What studies or parts of studies suitable to students between the period of adolescence on one hand and the college on the other are adaptable to a programme in which all countries may be interested?" I have pleasure in presenting to you as the leader of this discussion Miss JENNIE LASBY, Santa Ana, California.

Address by Miss JENNIE B. LASBY, Santa Ana,
California.

Miss LASBY: In taking up the discussion of this point I am compelled to do it from the standpoint of an American. I am sorry to say that it is eleven years since I was in Europe before, and I realise that in eleven years your views upon education have changed quite as much as ours in America.

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In the first place, I would like to define what we are trying to do with the pupil between the age of adolescence and the age of college. Our ideas have changed very much in the last few years. I can remember the time when, with a student of that age, our desire in education was to give him facts, to give him as much information as possible, and to expect him to use that as a foundation for later work. Now, we find that a student is not content to take facts. The newspaper perfectness, the radio, the cinema, the automobile, have changed entirely the attitude of the student of this age towards his education. We are beginning to recognise that the great factor of the student's mind at that age is curiosity, and if we can arouse his curiosity towards a subject we have solved the problem of his education.

In another way we find that in the great majority of cases the formal education of the individual ceases with this secondary education. It is a fact much to be deplored, but I believe on the statistics shown, that in the United States only three out of every thousand that start in the primary grade go beyond the secondary stage of education. So what we try to do in our secondary period of education in the United States is to create an attitude of mind, to enable the students in later life to form right opinions and become good citizens. What then are the studies which might very well be pursued in unison with other nations? In the first place, I believe, science is the great subject. Science is a universal subject. I have just come from the international Astronomical Convention at Cambridge. We found there representatives from twenty-one different nations and in almost every case they were interested in the same problems. We know that one of the most hopeful signs of our international relationship is the fact that no discovery of science is kept at home, that the very first thing that the discoverer does is to send it broadcast throughout all nations.

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I would divide this subject into two heads. First is the science which relates to life. We are more concerned perhaps with public health and physical development than with any other one problem. We look back over the achievements of the last fifty years and we are amazed at what science has accomplished to make our people more effective, to remove contagious and infectious diseases, and to cleanse our cities. We know very well that without co-operation from all nations these efforts are useless. What better subjects can we introduce into our secondary schools than the subject of hygiene, of physiology, of sanitation—the subjects which relate to public health?

In the second place we have the science which goes over into the region of invention, of communication, of transportation, all of which interest the student very much. You remember the saying that if people play together they cannot hate, and it is just as true that if people have the same interests they cannot hate. If we can give our students something in harmony in the scientific line, if we can give them experiments in physics and chemistry in the Laboratory, if we can have them exchanging specimens in the fields of botany and geology, we have a common bond and we will have friendships established that will last throughout life.

Then we all think, of course, of history. If history means to most students throughout the world, as it means to a student in America, a chronicle of events, it is a very sad thing. A chronicle of events cannot create a proper attitude towards life. But if we could group all these events in history around the purpose of civilisation we should no longer have a desolate view of world events. Last week in England I looked at two very wonderful stained glass windows and I thought how much they represented the way that we teach history. In one case we went into an old church. We looked at the window and it was extremely curious. It was made up of tiny

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bits of coloured glass; they were old and genuine, they were beautiful in colour, but that was all. There was no meaning in this great window, and yet a little further on we found one made in the same way, of tiny bits of old glass put together, and all the bits had been grouped about a central wonderful figure. If we could only group our events of history, true as they are, full of meaning as each one is, around the great purpose of civilisation, history could not help but develop a student's power of thinking and of reasoning. Another great mistake we have made in the teaching of history is the fact that we always picture in the beginning of a war the enthusiasm and righteousness of the cause. We picture both the armies going forth and then at the end of the war we picture the spoils and the glory of the victor, but we always forget to mention the misery, the suffering, the loss of genius, the loss of wealth, the loss of years of service.

Then the third subject which seems to be important in a curriculum of this kind is the study of geography, the geography of resources. It is no mere accident that the countries that have gold and iron, and which are all near together, have been the countries that have acquired wealth, that have acquired power amongst the nations. We are just beginning to realise the fact that water has been a great source of economic power and that small differences of temperature, of humidity, make it possible for factory workers in one place to actually produce more than factory workers in another place. If we can make the student see that, he understands what is at the back of all this competition in the economic world.

In the last place comes the study of literature. I hesitate very much to touch upon this, which is one of the hardest problems that we have to meet. The very proudest heritage that we have nationally is this heritage of our national literature. For much of the great national literature has been written under the great stress of national

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hardship or in the ecstasy of national triumph; reading it from that point of view the student often learns to love not only his own country better but other countries less. It seems as if already we were beginning to glimpse a change of attitude. As I have been going about the last few weeks through England I have been impressed very much by one fact, that the monuments that were erected before 1914 were to the glory of war. The heroes stand in their great dignity and in their regimentals. But now the new monuments, those since 1914, are no longer for the glory of the few but they are the sacrifice and the suffering of the many. If this spirit which is already coming into being could be carried into the hearts of all mankind, the great note of international peace and understanding is perhaps about to be sounded. (Applause.)

THE CHAIRMAN: The question is now open for discussion.

DISCUSSION.

Mr THOMAS C. BLAISDELL, American University Union, London: May I take one or two minutes to suggest something that seems to me very important, and which will apply equally well to every country. Health was mentioned. We are all interested in health. We want to put it on a much better basis of study than it has ever been put before. It seems to me that another subject, one of many, but one which is of equal importance, is, how are we going to teach boys and girls to use their leisure time? All over the world the eight hours day has come into effect. In the Orient they are working boys and girls twelve to fourteen hours a day, as I have seen in some of the cities during the past ten months, but that is going to be changed. The spirit for change is in the East to-day to get that cut down. It is true here in England. It is true in the United States. We are doing away with the long hours. Boys and girls are asking for more leisure than they used to have, and

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we are not showing them any way in which to use that leisure wisely. We require to give definite teaching of how to use leisure time wisely. Now, we cannot make that a subject by itself. It must be something incidental to all other subjects.

Another thing which I feel we should during these years emphasise, is how to make every boy and girl, a good member of the family. The most important institution without any exception on the face of the earth to-day is the family, and in our schools we are doing nothing to teach boys and girls to be family members. We have to teach boys and girls to start a family as it should be started and to continue it through twenty or thirty or forty years as it should be continued. I don't know of one school in a thousand at home that is teaching that in any way whatsoever. Are you doing any better in Scotland, in England, in Europe, in the East, anywhere?

Another thing is to teach boys and girls to become good community members. The community is a larger circle than the family, and that is all, reaching out from the family. How can these boys and girls be trained so that they can make the community in which they live a better community for the next generation? We want to emphasise the importance of social studies in the concrete definite direction of the family and of the community.

Naturally such teaching extends to the larger circle of the State and the nation and the world, but let us begin with these narrower ones. I think all these subjects ought to be taught from the viewpoint of information, of interest in the subject, and of the formation of character, and that by the way is far the most important one. In the teaching of health, of family life and so forth, we must develop the right kind of habit. It is not very much use to give anything, as far as teaching is concerned, if we don't follow it out in actual living.
(Applause.)

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Dr ROMAN DYBOSKI, Professor of English Literature, University of Cracow, Poland : I think it is quite clear from the admirable exposition of the subject by the leader of the discussion that there are certain things included in this programme which, in fact, are not controversial, but which go without saying. I think science is such a completely non-controversial subject that everybody is aware that science has been progressing by strides in the last few decades. There is only an interchange of ideas necessary to make the teaching of science more uniform throughout these civilised countries, and there is not likely to be much debate on this matter.

Similarly, I think that there need not be much discussion on the question of a wider and more intensive teaching of geography. That, of course, is a thing very much needed at the present moment, because the War has helped nations to realise how little they know of each other and how better it would be if they knew each other. Geography appeals to curiosity. Geography and science are not much subjects of controversy. We only want the basis of the teaching of these subjects to be broadened.

We come to a more controversial subject when we come to history, and, I think, a somewhat one-sided view has been taken by the leader of the discussion on the subject of history as pursued in secondary schools. As a matter of fact we are long past the time when history was a mere chronicle of the events of countries and other things. History is now always taught in a centralised way, grouping facts around central ideas, but what is at fault is that the grouping is made to centre round one's own nation. If a German writes a universal history it will be to the glory of the German nation in the nineteenth century. If a Britisher writes a history it will be to the glory of the British nation in the nineteenth century. The Russians also have a very great belief in the great men of their nation, and so in the

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case of other nations as well. What we want is not to introduce the idea of grouping facts around a certain centre, but to establish a proper centre, and then the teaching of history can be made more fruitful in the sense of international interest.

What should be done by the Federation is, I think, to throw out suggestions as to how the facts of history can be grouped around certain leading ideas in manuals written for the different purposes of the different nations. But the principle of grouping has already been adopted and it has only to be directed properly. Again, I beg to differ somewhat with the leader of the discussion with regard to the teaching of literature.

I think she has taken a somewhat too critical view of the literature of the past. If we look at the outstanding things in literature, surely an infinitesimal percentage of them is devoted to the glories of war. Look at the thirty-seven plays of Shakespeare. There is only one of them glorifying war, and even that one, according to Mr J. M. Robertson, was perhaps not written by Shakespeare. You have thirty-six other plays left, covering a wide range of ideas, appealing to every man in the world and not to Englishmen only. Look at other great poets. Look at Wordsworth. He teaches you to love nature. There is nothing about him glorifying old far-off forgotten things and battles. Look at Walt Whitman. There is plenty of international aspiration to be drawn from his ideas of comradeship. I think the teaching of literature may serve the same purpose as the wider teaching of geography. Nations can study other nations and know those other nations better and they see them represented best. Literature is the fine flower of a nation's character, and if you want to know your brother of another nation better you should study his great poets. Of course, the difficulty arises about having good translations. You cannot learn all

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languages, but that has been overcome by geniuses in the way of translation who appear from time to time.

With regard to the suggestions of the other speaker about the spiritual aims of teaching, of course, again I say we have not got to do everything. We need not make a revolution. The school has been assisted by other institutions. I have to state here in the presence of so many Americans, for instance, that the Young Men's Christian Association all over Europe has supplemented the work of the schools, has shown the young people, how to use their leisure moments, and very much has been done, especially in Poland, in awaking that new spirit, the spirit of service, for man is being taught by the Young Men's Christian Association to look upon his life as intended to serve others. That awakens the home sense in the way desired by the other speaker here and, of course, the work of the school gets its necessary supplement. (Applause.)

MR ALEXANDER SZORENYI, Budapest, National Union of Hungarian Students: I am here as a delegate of about 12,000 Hungarian students. I have to tell you that in advance, because many of you probably have heard already that Hungary is still the most nationalistic of states. We are the remnants, in the middle of Europe, of a people who still stick closely to old ideas. It was a daring thing for me to come here in the name of Hungary. I will tell you why. The question of internationalism and nationalism is a very hard thing in Europe. Whenever I mention the Young Men's Christian Association, the Students' Christian Movement, this World Federation of Education Associations, and so on, my countrymen always come with this counter argument, "Why should we be international, we want to be national, we want to know our own country." I beg very much that those who teach the subject of history and internationalism should go very slowly in the East and Middle European States. This does not mean that we don't

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want international peace, but if in creating or wanting to create international peace we touch the question of nationalism and we speak against nationalism, then we are certainly on the wrong road. I will tell you why.

For instance, it was not put in this way but somehow it was suggested that we should not read that part of literature which is very nationalistic. I will use one argument. Everybody is a better man in so far as he can develop his own individual wishes and desires and his own individual inclinations. The same thing is true in a larger sense for a family or for a town or a county, and in the same sense for a nation. Let everybody be a very good national and at the same time unite on those subjects where he can unite with others. On this platform they should find that common way. Therefore, I beg very much, in representing these 12,000 students, that we should really try to develop those national opinions in such a way that they should not give offence to other nations.

I have one proposal to make in connection with history books. I know very well, from experience, how history is taught. Whenever we take up the history of another nation we see just the opposite of what is taught in the history textbook that we use. It is not very easy to avoid that. We might form committees to discuss new history books. It could be done in writing. It could be done in a paper of the World Federation of Education Associations, in a monthly or quarterly review, in which the facts could be pointed out which are to be discussed. I think the best method to do that is by elimination. If I found something on which I agree with my worst enemy that it is bad, then we would discard it.

We are here to discuss what is the truth. I don't want to say that in my land everybody wants to find the truth. I am quite convinced they don't want to

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find it, but these are the men who are not to be allowed to act on bodies like this. But we have to find in each land those men who want honestly to find the truth, and when they come here they really want to do the best they can.

I have another proposal in connection with one of the subjects which could be universally taught, and that is the subject of art. Of course, I understand art may be nothing in the old Greek sense, or that in the modern English sense it is halfway science. I understand art to be literature, music, painting, sculpture, dancing and so on. I will tell you some things out of my experience. I was Secretary of the European Students' Relief Fund in connection with the American Young Men's Christian Association. There I met many foreigners of different nationalities. Whenever I showed them something of our art, which was the pure expression of a Hungarian who had reached a very high level in his line of art, they always admired it. They could not help admiring it. Those who were our enemies during the War, the French, were the first to hold a great centenary celebration in honour of our great national poet, who corresponds to the Scottish Burns. Now, I think that the subject of art in its pure form, should be taught a great deal better than it is. I don't mean that we should teach art in facts as I was taught Greek art. We have to teach the spirit of art and I certainly agree with much that our Californian lady friend told us, that when we are teaching facts we should teach the spirit of things. If we find the right thing in art we create a common platform, a great human joy, and therefore, I beg everybody to do all they can to know the art of other nations, by which I mean literature, music, painting, sculpture, architecture and so on. Ah, my time is up, and I would like to have said something more.

THE CHAIRMAN: I feel a criminal to call these people

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to order and limit them to their time, but I know there are dozens of people here who are bubbling over with enthusiasm and have a message for us.

Professor PAUL OTLET, Director of the Mundaneum, International Museum, Brussels: I come from Brussels and the problem which you are discussing now was before us after the War, at the beginning and end of the War, and it was very difficult for Belgians to have a true idea of what is the world, what is the signification of the world. So in 1920 we proceeded to constitute in Brussels a centre of International Associations and to create some institution to visualise what is really the present life of the world.

This institution constitutes an international museum divided into three sections, namely, what is the world, universal history, and universal geography. Now, what is the world? Following the line of science we present all kinds of facts, so that a man can go into the rooms and see what really is the world and have the feeling that he is a member of humanity and is a small part of the world and a small part of the universe. I make the proposal that we should unite the forces of all the nations in educating people. This museum provides a means whereby specialists of each nation could discuss and criticise any part of this world presentation of facts. My proposal is put in a resolution which is to be put before you.

THE CHAIRMAN: The time is up for the consideration of the first topic, but as the first subject and the second subject seem to me to be so interwoven, unless there are objections from this group we are going to consider them together. (Agreed.) The Second Topic is : What elements of the secondary school curricula lend themselves to the development of the spirit of goodwill, justice and international understanding? The next gentleman who has asked to be heard is Mr LUCAS of the Assistant Masters Association, London.

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Mr LUCAS: I rather think my friend from Japan comes first.

Mr S. OKAMOTO, Japan: I propose to you to introduce economics into the curriculum of secondary schools. I don't mean by economics, scholastic or academic economics, but I mean very practical economics—international economics. As I understand it, the Great War was due to economic causes. It was due to economic competition amongst the nations. I think the economic question has always been and will be the cause of War. I think this conference is for the peace of the world. I understand that in this conference we not only wish to postpone war by armies and navies, by gunpowder and aircraft, but we should also strive to put an end to economic War. If we do not put a stop to economic war we will sooner or later have another war. I am quite sure of it.

I am sure you know how economics works amongst nations. Let me give an example which you know very well. The production of indigo dye was discovered in Germany, and that deprived all the works in India of this business. They formerly grew the indigo plant, but they cannot grow it now because it would not pay them to grow it. But they have no other work to do if they do not grow the indigo plant. When I came here I passed through India and I saw that many people there had nothing to do. I asked an Indian gentleman about it and he told me that really they had nothing to do. They are idle, as idle as here. So in other towns. In every case economics are doing the same thing all over the world. Not only is one country doing the same thing but other countries; not only one group of people are doing the same thing but another group of people. That is quite true, but those who are not thinking don't know what they are really doing when they do something like what the Germans did. But if we teach boys sound national economics, they will know what they are really doing. So I should propose to put into the curriculum

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international economics. I would propose to put one more thing into the curriculum, and that is Oriental studies. We Orientals study Western things quite well, I am quite sure—(applause)—but I don't know whether most of the Westerners learn Oriental things as we do Western things, especially Oriental history and Oriental literature and Oriental art, but if you tried to, I think you could, so I should like to propose to put Oriental studies into your Western curriculum of secondary schools. Thank you very much.

Mr S. B. LUCAS : I want, if I may in the few moments which are at my disposal, to touch upon what was called by a previous speaker the controversial aspect of history teaching. We cannot, I am sure, get away from the fact that this is, and indeed is bound from the nature of things to be, more or less of a controversial subject, and I do think that it is necessary to utter a word of warning in this connection. We are here, all of us without exception I believe, profoundly under a sense of the importance of securing what might be called the international mind with regard to history teaching. We want to get away, if we can, from the idea of international rivalries and of the possibility of war, but at the same time, I think, we ought to be careful about this.

It has been said that history teaching in the past was too nationalistic in aim, and it seemed to be the view that we ought to try and introduce a kind of teaching that would be common to all nations. Now, there is a certain danger in that respect. I think we must be extremely careful not to let it be understood that we wish to impose a certain view of things upon teachers of history. There would be just as much danger in that point as in the other view. We stand for the freedom of the teacher and we must not try in any way to limit that freedom. By all means persuade the teacher to adopt your point of view, but do not intro-

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duce the element of compulsion in any way at all. Perhaps the ideal plan would be to have teachers—more than one teacher in a particular school—representing a different point of view. (Laughter.) I am speaking quite seriously, because I know schools in which it happened. You have on the one hand a teacher of history who is thoroughly imbued with what I might call the international point of view, and another teacher in the same school who adopts quite a strong and national point of view of his own country, and the result is that the discussion that goes on is most valuable. Now, the leader of our discussion just now, Miss Lasby, talked about a window made up of different pieces of glass. It seems to me that we teachers might very well be content to be looked upon as pieces of glass, some of us plain and some coloured perhaps—(laughter)—but all of us aspiring to make up part of that great educational window through which the truth may shine. (Applause.)

Miss R. A. PENNETHORNE, London, Organising Secretary of the Parents' National Educational Union: I have listened with very great interest to the discussion on the points of the teaching of history and literature. I thought it might interest you to hear how the teaching of international history and international literature has already been carried on in the 600 or 700 schools which belong to the Society which I have the honour to represent, on lines which would, I think, do away with a great many of the difficulties which have occurred to some of the speakers.

First of all, if history and literature were always contemporaneous, each man, however wrong nationally, would appear to us to-day in the circumstances which produced him. I know it is a very old question, whether the times make the man or the man makes the times, and if children are seeing the message of each country in each age, ideals are being represented to them through the great minds which alone clothe ideas

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in such words that they become part of ourselves, not part of our national selves but of our universal independent selves. A child who gets his ideas of the struggles and the sufferings of human souls from Dante's "Inferno," who gets perhaps his ideas of the romantic side of life through Alexander Dumas, and who always gets his English literature from his Shakespeare or his Wordsworth, or whoever it may be in the times during which some great man lived and suffered, is not going to be carried away by words passing and momentary in their work but is going to see them in their own right setting.

I might add that in a great deal of our historical teaching we use American history books. We feel that we do get a more detached view. When it comes to the study of Oriental subjects, I believe the children in our schools are the only children who are definitely getting teaching in Indian history. I think we may always feel that of the literature which is great and universal, the greatest and most universal of all books is the Hebrew Bible, whose words have gone out unto the ends of the earth. (Applause.)

Miss ELLA MUNSTERBERG, Boston, Mass.: I think there are universal languages, languages which are international and supernational, languages which have no grammar and no rhetoric, the languages of music and the fine arts. It seems to me they have always been international languages, and it seems to me that if a child's mind is awakened to the ultimate values of these international languages battles must cease.

Now, I think drawing and painting especially should be compulsory in the elementary schools as it is in the secondary schools. Some children are old enough to be wise enough to see that they can never express themselves in drawing and painting, and perhaps not in music, but I think it is too bad that these people should be deprived of the joys of those international languages,

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and it is for this reason that I think, just as the speaker said we should have history of literature, we should always in the more advanced schools have also history of drawing and painting and history of music, and if the mind was then focussed on these constructional values, these values that are not only international but super-national, these intimate values, why, your mind is so bound with all these things that you cannot think of destructive forces, because the mind is then focussed on constructional forces. (Applause.)

Professor N. G. WELINKAR, M.A., LL.B., Osmania University, Hyderabad, India: Considering the time limit of five minutes and the magnitude of the subjects we are discussing, I speak with fear and trembling. I shall only attempt to throw out ideas, without making the least attempt to develop any of them. Now, I want to say in the first place that the Federation must not attempt too much. (Hear, hear.) We have to consider the evil of what is known as an overloaded curriculum. (Hear, hear, and applause.)

Already it is a general feeling amongst educators in the secondary schools that we are putting too much into our secondary school curriculum. We have to bear this in mind and, therefore, we have to strike a minor note. I want to say in the first place that with regard to history, putting aside for a moment the controversial aspects of history, there is one thing that will have to be borne in mind, and that is, that the questions with which history deals are rather beyond the range of the student between, let me say, ten and fourteen. (Hear, hear.) The great questions which made the nations war with one another, the questions of international politics and international economics, are surely, are they not, beyond the range of the young man of fourteen, and I want to suggest to this conference whether we should not make more of biography than we are doing.

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Biography is a thing that is more within the range and interest of the young man than history. It deals with the human factor more than history can. I want to suggest to this meeting whether it will not be a good thing to help to compile a book of international biography. It seems to me that greatness is universal, that the men who are truly great are those who have risen above the nationalistic and the human standpoint of view, and, I think, that if we put biography before the young as a thing to arouse their enthusiasm, to lift them up above the narrow surroundings of their own individual and national lives, we shall have done some service.

I pass on now to literature, a very controversial subject, and yet there is no educationist who has ever suggested that literature should be out of the highest curriculum. No one has suggested that. Why? Because the highest literature is in its very essence universal. Think of Shakespeare! "One touch of nature makes the whole world kin." What is there national about that? Nothing. Let me quote from our Indian writers one or two examples. One of our great Eastern poets says, "All we are members of one body and we share the joys and sufferings of one another in the fullest degree." There is nothing nationalistic but everything universal about this. And let me quote another great saying from the Mahabharata, that great treasure house of Eastern thought and Eastern wisdom. It is fortunate that I can quote the English translation. The Mahabharata says, "Small in mind belongs this man to my race or tribe or clan, but large-hearted men embrace like brothers all the human race." (Applause.) Now, you have nothing nationalistic here. You have nothing even international, but it all throbs with the instinct of humanity. Now, literature is a thing that we ought to rely upon in growing measure in lifting up the young to the human standpoint. I have heard the word "Interna-

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tional" frequently used here, and it is well, but I should also like the word "human" to be used. There is something even above internationalism and that is our common humanity, that "touch of nature which," to use Shakespeare's words again, "makes the whole world kin." (Applause.)

Miss E. H. C. PAGAN, King Arthur School, Musselburgh, Scotland: I have the great honour of having been asked by a Society in Greece to represent them at this meeting, a Society formed for the dissemination of useful books, and I am glad to be here in this very wonderful meeting to discuss the whole question of this universal education. There is only one thought I want to bring forward, and that is that when we are trying to get at any kind of universal education, any teaching from a universal point of view, we must get to fundamental laws, whether it is science or literature or art or any thing else. We must get to a law that is a defined law, a universal law, a law that cannot be shaken.

When we are dealing with history we know that every nation has an individual infancy and mature life and old age, and each one goes through those phases of development. That helps us to understand other nations. We think of what stage of development a nation is at and what stage of development our own is at. And also there are no two alike. There is one glory of the moon and another glory of the sun. There is infinite variety in nature, but we want equality of opportunity and equality of brotherly feeling all round. We are not expecting our brothers to be exactly like ourselves. We don't want them to be. It would be a dull world where we were all alike. Each nation has its own note to sound. We want each nation to have the best opportunities of sounding its own note in the best way and of helping the concert of the whole world.

We want views on art. People cannot all be artists, as some other speakers have emphasised. We cannot

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all express ourselves in drawing and painting, but we can learn to appreciate what is being done by great artists, and a great picture put before us appeals to everyone, if it is truly great. Great literature appeals to everyone, if it is truly great. You can learn the true lines of anatomy from a Greek statue. You can learn the true characters of human nature from Shakespeare. We want to appreciate other nations for what they are, not trying to make them what we want them to be or what we should like them to be, but looking at them with interest and affection, appreciating what they can do and what they can give, what they are.

And in early literature we can see how very persistent the national trait is. I had to study in the course of my honours degree in the University of Edinburgh the very early literature of England and also of Greece, and I noticed how different were the points of view of Chaucer and of Homer. Although they are dealing with very much outwardly the same conditions of society, there is a very vast difference in the point of view. You feel all through that what the Greeks admired was cleverness and brilliant intellect, and their hero is commended for his clever lying. That is not according to the British view of life at all. The hero of Chaucer must speak the truth, whatever it costs him, even if it is a clumsy and rather tactless statement. He is admired for it. Then the women are honoured in Chaucer. It is the lady of the house who presides at the banquets and regulates the conversation and even the food. In Homer the women are put away in the background, in tents or anywhere else. They don't appear. They don't take any honourable part in the life of the nation. In Chaucer it is the very gentle knight who loves truth, honour, freedom and courtesy. He never said any evil of any body and never any good of himself, always gentle and always courageous and chivalrous.

Now, in our international field we want to appreciate

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and to enter into the characteristics of other nations and understand these. The idea was once put forward that history should be written backwards, that children should first understand their own times and then be taken backwards. In my view a child ought to know that there is order and that everything progresses according to universal Divine law. Every child understands primitive society. Every child is acting primitive conditions. They are hunting and fighting and doing the things that all primitive people did. They are passing rapidly through primitive ideas and experiences and they cannot at that age grasp the complicated economic conditions of civilisation such as we are living in now. They can grow up to that. We should get down to fundamental laws and apply these to all subjects, and then we can get a framework to apply any facts that come along.

In teaching science you can never keep children abreast of all the science that is being discovered throughout the world, but you can teach them universal laws into which they will fit any facts that come to their knowledge in their lives later on. (Applause.)

THE CHAIRMAN: We now come to the discussion of topic No. Three: "Is it desirable for the Federation to seek means of furthering the exchange of secondary school teachers? If so, what plan should be recommended?"

Mr TH. C. THORS, Copenhagen: May I just say that we have in Scandinavia three countries, but we want in many respects or in all respects to feel as one country, so we do a great many things to make the three nations feel as one. It is very difficult, for instance, for a Dane to understand a Swede. Danes and Norwegians understand each other much better, but the Danish and Swedish languages are very different from each other, at any rate so different that you must go through one book before you can really know the language of the other, or if you are a Swede you must do something before you can really understand a Danish book. We in Den-

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mark and in Sweden have tried to exchange teachers and pupils. Every year Swedish boys and girls from the secondary schools come to Denmark, to Copenhagen especially and other towns, and stay for some time there. They spend some time at the schools, going into classes and talking to the Danish boys and girls and sometimes reading with them. Sometimes their teachers are with them and then the teachers give a kind of lecture to the school when it is assembled. This is in the secondary schools, and in the elementary schools it is very often so also, that pupils from those schools are exchanged and live for some time in Swedish homes or Swedish children in Danish homes. We have tried this for some years and have found it of very good effect, so I think if this could be extended in some way—I don't know in what way, but if this exchange of pupils could be extended so as to comprise an exchange between English and Danish or German and Danish or French and English—it would be a great thing. I just want to recommend that this matter should be taken up as far as possible.

Mr HARRY A. DOMINCOVICH, Friends' School, Germantown, Philadelphia: I rise to speak before this body with considerable hesitation because I am simply a teacher of English, and also in a Friends' School, but I have been travelling for one month among British schools and the experience both amongst the schools and in this Conference, so far as I have gone, has convinced me that here, in an affirmative answer to the question before us, lies considerable hope for international understanding. It is not the time now to suggest an exchange of pupils. When that question arises I shall feel like saying a little about that, but the question of the exchange of teachers, as I have known it in a very small experience, seems to be a vital one.

Before the War there was some exchange of teachers

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between America and Germany and between America and certain other countries. I had the satisfaction of knowing one of the American teachers who had gone to Germany, and I am quite convinced that in his experience in Germany he secured much that enabled him to understand the German people. After all, one of the things I think that is a great bar to national understanding is the matter of language. We find it here amongst ourselves. If our teachers could for six months or for a shorter period come in contact with the people of another race, of another civilisation, of another point of view or of another language, in the nature of things they will go home to their boys and girls with a finer appreciation of the difference in point of view of which we heard just a moment ago.

Those differences, I think, are frequently superficial. They are not difficulties. They are just little peculiarities, very often merely surface differences. And, so I hope, if the World Federation will do anything, it will constitute some kind of clearing-house where those schools which are willing to arrange for an exchange of teachers may do so. The simplest schemes very often work the best. In the case of the German exchange the American teacher was simply a teacher of his own native English, and he talked with the boys in the school about his experience at home, using the English language entirely, and living in a German home he got into contact with the Germans. And in the same way the German teacher who came to America spoke his own language in his class, and he lived in an American home and got into contact with English speech in that way. I think we have a tremendous opportunity here.

Mr G. R. PARKER, Catford, England, Association of Assistant Masters in Secondary Schools: This paragraph begins, "Is it desirable for the Federation to seek means of furthering the exchange of secondary school

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teachers?" I think there can be no possible doubt as to the desirability of arranging an exchange of teachers between different countries. The value to the teachers themselves who are exchanged and the value of their experiences when they return must be exceedingly great, but I just want to put before you a small difficulty which we in England have met with in attempting an exchange of teachers. It is rather a material difficulty and perhaps you may consider the mention of it as on a lower plane than some of the ideas which have been put before you this morning.

But the difficulty is this, that under the national system of education, with a national scale of salaries and superannuation, up till quite recently any teacher who has gone abroad has suffered in his material prospects by leaving his own country for a year. He has suffered in comparison with the teachers who did not take advantage of any such opportunity. He has had to sacrifice a years' service, a year of salary increment and a years' service for superannuation purposes. The British Government recently has completed an arrangement with the French Government for an exchange of teachers between England and France, in which those difficulties I am glad to say have been got over and now there is no sacrifice.

For some years primary teachers from England have been going for a period of service in the Colonies, but there has been no scheme for an exchange of secondary teachers. There has been a scheme for an exchange of teachers in preparation between England and France. We have had in English schools what are known as assistants, but they are teachers in training and it is part of their training to come and spend a year teaching or doing a certain amount of teaching, but more studying, in English schools.

This difficulty about salary and superannuation would

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lead one rather to the suggestion that in attempting any exchange of secondary school teachers, the arrangements must be made by the Governments of the countries concerned, or rather if any scheme is prepared it must be submitted to and accepted by the Governments of the countries concerned, so that these difficulties of loss of pay, loss of service, shall not arise. It seems rather to me that perhaps this Conference might draw up some general scheme for an exchange of teachers, but that that general scheme would have to be submitted to and accepted by the Governments of the countries concerned. (Applause.)

Miss MARJORIE WISE, London, Association of Assistant Mistresses in Secondary Schools : I happen to have taught for two years in an American school. There is just one proposal that has been made, that people should go for three months. That seems an absurd proposal, because in three months you don't know the people. I thought in the first year I had made good friends, but everybody was terribly polite to me. Well, they were still so polite that I knew we were not very good friends, but in the second year they were very rude to me and then I knew we were very good friends, and if there is a question of an exchange of teachers I would strongly recommend from personal experience that it should be a longer time than three months.

Mr HERBERT LEE, Principal of the Union High School, Livermore, California : I have the honour to represent the State Superintendent of Public Instruction of the State of California. Our Superintendent has one great slogan that he harps on continually. It is that we are not engaged to teach certain subjects, but that above all, and all the time, we ought to remember that whether it is history or geography, or Latin or Greek, they are both means of teaching boys and girls. Now, it seems to me that we have to continually remember that—that whether

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we go as teachers in England or teachers in the United States, we are here with the boys and girls of our country and with their interests at stake.

With regard to this matter of the interchange of teachers, we have already a system of exchange in operation in the United States. We have that between California and New York and it is helpful in two ways. It helps the teachers of New York or of Philadelphia to come out to California, and it helps the teachers of California to go over to New York. There is a uniformity of interest and enthusiasm that comes from such work. We must remember all the time that it is the boy and the girl that we have to interest. We have been very gratified this year in California to have received from England Professor Adams, who has made a wonderful impression out there in our country. We all have things to exchange. It has been a fine thing this morning to feel that we all want the products of other countries.

I often tell our folks in California, particularly the ladies, that if it were not for the Japs our silk industry and our silk hose would be twice as expensive. We all like to drive cars out there, and yet we could not have a car there if it were not for the rubber that comes from other countries outside the United States. And we have to impress upon our boys and girls that they need the work and the experience of other people.

THE CHAIRMAN: There is a motion that the Chair should appoint a committee of five to consider these topics. There seems to me, at least from one quarter, to be sentiment to the effect that they should be nominated from the floor. If you wish to reconsider your motion, the Chair will await such action.

A DELEGATE: There are two things I would like to suggest. Considering the close connection between Nos. One and Two, which you have pointed out yourself,

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would it not be better just to have one committee to consider Nos. One and Two together. It seems to me that they are organically inter-related, and I would suggest one committee for Nos. One and Two. The second thing is that there seems to be no contradiction between what the speaker said and your original motion that the chairman should select. I think the two could co-operate. Some names could be suggested by the chairman and some by those interested among the audience.

THE CHAIRMAN: That is a suggestion. I do not understand this motion. Do you wish to reconsider, or is it for the Chairman to proceed?

A DELEGATE: The Chairman to nominate.

THE CHAIRMAN: It is moved and seconded that there be one committee to function on both questions. The Chair is pleased to announce Professor Welinkar as Chairman of that committee, Mr Okamoto of Japan, Dr Dyboski from Poland, Miss Lasby from California, and Mr Lucas from the British Empire.

Mr LUCAS: I should like my name withdrawn from this particular committee. I am afraid I would be of very little use, but I would be of better use on a committee dealing with another question which is coming up later.

THE CHAIRMAN: I will therefore appoint in Mr Lucas's stead Mr Szorenji of Hungary. Then the second committee to consider the exchange of teachers will be Mr Thors of Denmark, Mr Dominovich of U.S.A., Mr Parker and Mr Lee. Will somebody else volunteer to act on that committee? I have got the name now of Miss Boyd of New York City. The statement of Mr Okamoto was in the nature of a recommendation. I purposely left it until this time to see if you would care to refer this resolution to your committee. It is moved and seconded that the resolution presented by Mr Okamoto

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be referred to the committee. All in favour raise your right hand.

A DELEGATE : May I ask which committee this resolution will be referred to?

THE CHAIRMAN : This resolution will be referred to Committee No. 1. I suggest that the members of Professor Welinkar's committee meet him right here in front of this desk right now and make your own arrangements. The other committee should meet right there at the outside door and make your own arrangements, but please be prepared to report to-morrow morning.

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Wednesday, 22nd July.

Mr W. E. WING, Portland, Maine, in the Chair.

THE CHAIRMAN: Our first matter of business this afternoon is to listen to the report of the first Committee, of which Professor Welinkar is Chairman.

Professor N. G. WELINKAR, Osmania University, Hyderabad, India: I think that perhaps my best plan will be just to read the report as our Committee has drawn it up, without comment at this stage. You will remember that we had before us for disposal a proposal emanating from Brussels, and we were asked to state our opinion with regard to that proposal, and, therefore, the first section of our report deals with that matter.

"The Committee recognises the value of the Palais Mondiale at Brussels in promoting the ideals which the Federation stands for and recommends that the assistance of this institution be utilised in such manner as may seem proper to the Executive of the Federation from time to time.

"Section Two: The answer to points suggested in questions Nos. 1 and 2 at page 8 of the detailed programme of the Conference, is as follows: The following subjects suitable for students between the ages of twelve and sixteen are in the Committee's opinion adaptable to a programme in which all countries may with advantage co-operate. Some of these subjects may be incorporated into the regular curriculum of secondary schools; others may be treated as optional subjects which may be taught to students interested in or showing aptitude for such subjects. These subjects are: (1) Universal Biography; (2) Visual instruction in geography and topography of great towns; (3) Literature; (4) Aesthetic instruction; (5) Elements of Civics and Economics.

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"We proceed to say a word of explanation with regard to each of these subjects. (1) Universal Biography: The Committee is of the opinion that a biography of the great men of all times and all countries is eminently suitable for study in secondary schools with the view of promoting the intentions of the Federation. The Committee also recommends that a representative Committee be appointed to consider the question of compiling a suitable textbook of Universal Biography, giving the lives of men who have contributed most to the development of civilisation and helped greatly to raise the ideal of humanity. 'We need an international Plutarch,' as a member of the Committee remarked.

"With regard to the second subject: Visual Instruction in Geography, including the topography of great towns, for the promotion of international friendship by means of better knowledge of other peoples: the Committee recommends visualising geography and topography by means of mechanical contrivances which are well-known, such as the cinematograph films and so on.

"With regard to No. Three, Literature, a most potent instrument in spreading the spirit and sentiment of humanism is literature, and the Committee recommends that an anthology of the best passages from the greatest poets and prose writers of humanity be compiled for collateral reading in high schools, and that this most important work be assigned to a competent and sufficiently representative committee.

"The next point is Aesthetic Instruction: With the view of awakening real joy and pleasure in the aesthetic, we recommend that provision be made in all high schools for aesthetic culture by introducing into the regular study and into the regular work of schools frequent visits to museums and by giving to the pupils simple talks on aesthetics.

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"The last subject recommended is: Elements of Civics and Economics. We consider that these subjects are of the first importance in awakening what may be described as a civic and an international conscience. It is only at a certain age that the foundations of this knowledge can in our opinion be profitably laid and we recommend that the beginnings of these studies, namely, civics and economics, be made at the age of twelve, and that the course be one of three or four years as may seem best. Civics is a subject the scope of which is well understood and it is not necessary in the Committee's opinion to define what civics should contain, especially in view of the illuminating remarks of some of the speakers yesterday morning on what the scope of teaching of civics in secondary schools should be. With regard to economics, there was some difference of opinion in the Committee, but the prevailing opinion was that economics is a subject which is within the understanding of students between twelve and sixteen, and that economics of an elementary kind should form an organic part of the instruction imparted in secondary schools."

THE CHAIRMAN: You have heard the report of this Committee. What is your pleasure?

Professor HERBERT LEE, M.A., B.Sc., Principal of the Union High School, Livermore, California: I move that we adopt this report and that it be forwarded to the Secretary of this Conference.

THE CHAIRMAN: Is that seconded?

Professor PATRICK GEDDES, Collège des Ecossais, Montpellier, France: I second the adoption of the report.

THE CHAIRMAN: It is moved and seconded that the report of the Committee be adopted.

Mr W. F. GRANT, B.Sc., Principal of Boys' High School, Cape Town, South African Teachers' Association: There are problems involved in this report which cannot

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be rushed through without further discussion. I beg to move that we amend the original motion to the effect that we take this up item by item.

Mr MARSHALL, West Virginia: I beg to second the amendment.

Professor WELINKAR: It is only right that this should be discussed item by item. That is not an amendment. I am quite willing that it should be discussed item by item, with the Chairman's permission.

Mr S. B. LUCAS, Highgate, London, Association of Assistant Masters in Secondary Schools: Before we begin this discussion may we have a time limit, because if we discuss this thing as a whole we shall do nothing else this afternoon. I beg to move that not more than five minutes be devoted to each item of the Committee's report.

THE CHAIRMAN: Is that motion that we limit the discussion to five minutes seconded?

A DELEGATE: I beg to second it. (Cries of "Agreed.")

THE CHAIRMAN: The vote is that the discussion be limited to five minutes for each item.

Professor WELINKAR: Is it desired that I should read the section relating to the proposal from Brussels, or shall we reserve it?

Rev. R. HARVIE SMITH, Thornliebank, Renfrewshire Education Authority: I hope you are not going to go over the same report, when this report is a reflection of what we did the previous time. I move that the report should be accepted as a whole from the point of view that the Committee are stating what we did ourselves at the former sederunt.

THE SECRETARY, Miss MARJORIE WISE, London: I would suggest that the report be printed and put up on the notice board on Friday.

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Mrs FANNIE F. ANDREWS, Ph.D., Washington: May I suggest that we have two other programmes for this section, and if you look forward to the section on Friday you will find that we are going to cover some of the same subjects that are covered in this report, and it is possible that after we have discussed them we may wish to modify this report so as to include these similar subjects. For instance, in Friday's section we have "What phases of literature, music, and art may the Federation set up susceptible of universal application?" That may overlap this, and it seems to me that we could well adopt this report or receive it at this session, and then when the other committee's report is submitted perhaps they could be combined for the finished reception by this body before going to the Executive Committee.

A DELEGATE: I move that the suggestion of the Secretary be adopted and that we proceed with our programme for to-day.

Mr W. F. GRANT: I will withdraw my amendment.

THE CHAIRMAN: The motion now is that we have these resolutions or recommendations typewritten and posted in the hall and taken up at our Friday's meeting. All in favour will please raise their hands. It is the vote and we will proceed with our programme for to-day. I understand from that motion that this includes both Committees. Is that right? (Cries of "Yes.")

Mr G. R. PARKER, Catford, England: The report of the Committee on the exchange of teachers consists of two resolutions, or rather, perhaps I should say two sets of resolutions which the Committee hopes that you will adopt and send forward to the delegate assembly, if that is the proper body to send them to, or, if not, to the proper body. The first set of resolutions suggests action which may be entered upon at once and is in the nature of preparing the ground for the future crop. This was the first resolution. It is in three parts:

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"That the World Federation of Education Associations assembled at Edinburgh, July 1925, in biennial conference recommend (a) to administrators of education in all lands that they do everything possible, while safeguarding the fundamental interests of their boys and girls, to facilitate the exchange of teachers between countries by (1) granting aids for travel; (2) broadening certification requirements; and (3) developing suitable openings for exchanging teachers in their school system; (b) to organisations of teachers everywhere, that they encourage teachers of special aptitude to study foreign languages and prepare themselves efficiently to exchange with others interested in education in its broadest sense, and that they aid in developing a public opinion in favour of a system of exchange of teachers."

The second resolution is as follows: "That the Executive of the World Federation be requested to appoint a Committee to draw up a scheme for the exchange of teachers, such scheme to contain as essential features (a) that the minimum period of teaching abroad shall be one year, and (b) that all time spent in teaching abroad shall count fully for salary and superannuation purposes, and that in the meantime the Federation shall set up a bureau for assisting teachers to take advantage of existing opportunities for the exchange of teachers."

Mr Chairman, may I move the adoption of that report?

THE CHAIRMAN: It is moved and seconded that the Committee's report be adopted. All in favour will please raise their hands. That is the vote. We will assume that that is to be printed and acted upon as the other one.

After further discussion the report was adopted on the understanding that an opportunity would be given at the Plenary Session for further discussion.

THE CHAIRMAN: I have been asked to allow Mr BELTETTE, the General Secretary of the International

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Association of Secondary School Teachers, to speak to you for five minutes.

M. A. BELTETTE, Tourcoing, France, General Secretary, Bureau International de l'Enseignement Secondaire : I take leave to introduce an institution which certainly you don't know of, but which is following the same aims as those you are now pursuing. I refer to the International Bureau of Secondary School Teachers. The Bureau has been in existence for twelve years now and the number of nations which are affiliated is fourteen, and three more are asking for affiliation. We have about 40,000 secondary school teachers in the Association. These have sent me to greet you all and to tell you we shall be delighted to see a link created between our two associations. Our next meeting is to be held at Belgrade in the month of August. Our experience at previous conferences may be useful to the World Federation.

We have a quarterly magazine whose articles are principally based on the discussions at our conferences, and we have also articles by leading educationists of Europe. The circulation is not very large, but we expect it to grow. I am very pleased to tell you that we are ready to co-operate with you in your work, that we are still an organisation in actual working operation. I must mention that in order to get still closer intimacy between English teachers—who are generally most excellent teachers—and our Association, the conference which was arranged to take place in Bucharest in 1927 will be transferred to London. The Assistant Masters who are an affiliated member of our Association have invited us to a conference there in August 1926. I have to present with the greetings of my Association a most hearty invitation to come to Belgrade, and if possible a still heartier invitation to come to London, where I hope the link I am trying to create between our Associations will be completed. (Applause.)

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THE CHAIRMAN: The first question for discussion this afternoon is : "In order that there may be developed in the rising generation a broader grasp of international relations and world-thinking, it is essential that plans be laid for the study of all influences which tend to stabilise international relations. This would include a study of the codification of international laws, agreements and treaties, courts of international justice, the world court idea, the League of Nations, etc. How may this be done?" The discussion is to be opened by Mrs ANDREWS of Washington.

Suggestions for the Study of International Relations in Secondary Schools.

Address by Mrs FANNIE FERN ANDREWS, Ph.D.,
Washington, D.C., U.S.A.

Mrs ANDREWS: The programme which I shall outline for the study of international relations in the Secondary School may seem too advanced for pupils of this age and undoubtedly it would be if this were the first approach to the study of world relationships.

The suggestions which I shall make pre-suppose an elementary preparation in world thinking. The World Course in Citizenship, described in the Report of the Committee of the National Education Association of the United States, appointed to co-operate with the American School Citizenship League, might very well precede the teaching of International Relations which I am about to describe.

The course for the elementary schools is an eight year course, the general aims of which are (1) to develop the spirit of goodwill and co-operation through the widening relationships of the child acting as a member of the home, school, town or city, country and finally as a member of the world family; and (2) to lead the pupils to appreciate the value of the co-operative spirit among

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the States of the world. Some of the Eighth Grade topics in this course: Independence of Nations, Justice and Honour between Nations, Growth of Law as an Agency for Promoting Goodwill, Agreements between Nations and World Conferences leading to World Federation—show especially how the course is intended to realise the second of these aims.

The following suggestions for teaching international relations in the Secondary School are presented merely as suggestions. It is not my intention to present a complete course at this time.

In any teaching of this sort, we should begin, I think, with the definition of a State and we should show what is meant by the Family of Nations. It is a very interesting study to trace the historical development of States and to see how and when they have been admitted into the Family of Nations. This study throws light on the political rearrangements brought about by the League of Nations which Oppenheim and other international law writers now call the Family of Nations.

Another subject which might be considered and which would logically follow is the regulation of the relations between States which is done by the negotiation of treaties. In order to show to what extent treaties govern the affairs of the world, the two kinds of treaties should be explained: those to which many States are parties and those to which only two States are parties, the former being real parts of international law, and the latter being law only for the States which make the agreements. It would be illuminating to Secondary School pupils to know how many treaties there are in the world. It would take more than one hundred thousand pages to print them all.

The binding force of treaties should receive consideration and attention should be drawn to the large number of treaties (850) which according to Article 18 of the Covenant of the League of Nations are registered with

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the Secretariat of the League and published in the League of Nations Treaty Series. Attention should be drawn also to the stipulation in Article 18 that no treaty or international engagement made by the members of the League is binding until registered with the Secretariat. Pupils can readily see the protection which the world has here against secret treaties.

There might follow a study of law-making treaties beginning with the Treaty of Westphalia in 1625. Leading to this study, pupils should be told of the work of Hugo Grotius, who in the midst of the Thirty Years War, sought to state the rules which should govern the relations between States. The story of Hugo Grotius, the father of international law, could be made most interesting for Secondary School pupils.

The modern period of diplomatic history dates from the Treaty of Westphalia, which among other things laid the basis for freedom in religious matters and established the principle of the interdependence of sovereign States—two most essential elements in securing justice in the Family of Nations.

From the Treaty of Westphalia (1625), the Treaty of Utrecht (1713) and the Treaty of Vienna (1815), the three celebrated cases of modern European powers, there should follow the study of the next great law-making treaties—the Hague Conventions of 1899 and 1908 which ushered in a new epoch in the settlement of international disputes by pacific methods by establishing the Permanent Court of Arbitration which not only had settled sixteen important international disputes, including most of the important States of the world, but which gave a powerful incentive to arbitration, conciliation and judicial settlement. A brief survey of these sixteen cases would be very interesting to the Secondary School pupil who will readily see the significance of selecting the Eighteenth of May, the anniversary of the opening of the First Hague Conference in 1899, as World Good-

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will Day which, it should be said, has been celebrated in the schools under the name of Peace Day since 1906. In this year, and in 1912 and 1913, the United States Commissioner of Education issued a letter to the teaching and administrative force of the United States, urging the observance of the Eighteenth of May as Peace Day, and in 1912 and 1913, the department of education, under the direct supervision of the United States Commissioner of Education, issued manuals containing full information concerning the historical significance of the day as well as detailed programmes for the different grades of schools. These bulletins, which were bought to the number of 150,000, were sent to the ministers of education in nearly every country of the world, and in several countries parts of them were translated for the use of teachers.

After the Hague Convention, there would logically follow a study of the Covenant of the League of Nations—the greatest of all the law-making treaties. Every Secondary School pupil should have a general conception at least of the political plan of the League of Nations, and also of the outstanding activities. One of the most important of these is the negotiation and the ratification of the thirty or more multi-lateral treaties by the members of the League of Nations for the purpose of regulating international matters where the law is inadequate. The subjects of these treaties relate to world interests and therefore concern all States whether members of the League or not.

The Secondary School pupil should know the general plan of the mandatory system of the League of Nations which recognises the principle of trusteeship over the backward regions of the earth. This is one of the great outstanding features of the political plan of the League.

The foregoing study of the political activities of the League of Nations should be followed by a study of its social and humanitarian activities. This will give the pupil a very broad outlook on world life.

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The purpose and work of the Permanent Court of International Justice should be included in any study which aims to give "the rising generation a broader grasp of international relations and world thinking." This stands out as one of the great achievements of the League of Nations. It is a monument to the administration of international justice according to law. A study of this should be preceded by a consideration of the growth of law which should emphasise its function as an agency for promoting goodwill and harmonious administration.

With regard to the codification of international law, I must frankly state my disapproval of considering it as such in the Secondary School. It is far too technical and opens up a wide diversity of opinion. The battle among the lawyers as to what codification really means, and if it means one thing or another, whether it should be codified, should not be brought into the schoolroom. The action of the Fifth Assembly of the League of Nations in 1924 in appointing a committee of experts to prepare a list of the subjects of international law the regulation of which by international agreement would seem to be most desirable and realisable at the present time might well be presented, either in connection with the study of the growth of law or the Permanent Court of International Justice. The distinction between customary law and conventional law could very well be made in the consideration of the law to be applied by the Permanent Court of International Justice. But here, as well as in the consideration of all the subjects I have mentioned, technicalities should be avoided. We must remember that we are teaching the pupil and not the subject. Our aim should be to develop world thinking and to stimulate a sympathetic interest in world affairs

As to the way in which this subject might be taught, I make the following suggestions: First, it could be

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taught as a regular course of the school: second, in schools which have a course in world history, it might form a part of this course; third, it could be taught incidentally in the subjects already in the curriculum.

But regardless of the manner in which the subject is taught, it is very obvious that special material should be prepared for the teachers, who cannot be expected to do the study and research which would be necessary to assemble all the material which I have suggested. I recommend that a special book be prepared for the use of the teacher and that this book contain a consecutive course in the study of international relations, adapted to the capacity of the Secondary School pupils.

We can hardly realise, I think, the results of a world-wide teaching of international relations, and the effect on the thought and the attitude of the rising generation toward international co-operation and world justice.

THE CHAIRMAN: I think it is only fair to acknowledge next those speakers who have approached the Chair and given in their cards intimating the subject on which they wish to speak. I am now introducing to you PHYA BHARATA, of the Siamese Legation in London.

Siamese Government Students.

Address by PHYA BHARATA, London, Superintendent, Siamese Government Students.

PHYA BHARATA: I hope to be able to present to you within the limited time permitted some idea of the activities which we follow in Siam in connection with international intellectual co-operation. Our Government fully recognises the importance of this; and its policy for many years has been directly counter to that of national isolation. For more than a generation, in accordance with the wise policy initiated by the late King and whole-heartedly followed by his son, the present King, students have been sent in continually increasing numbers

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to foreign countries for study and training. His Majesty the present King lived and studied for many years in Europe, in Oxford for example, and many of the members of the Royal family were educated or travelled abroad. A large proportion of the principal posts in all branches of the Government service are held by men who received training in Europe, and, since the Great War, in the United States of America. During the decade commencing with 1898, the average annual number of Siamese Government students in England was twenty-seven, and in the following decade between 1908 and 1917 this average number had increased to forty-six. Since the Great War, in accordance with a consistent policy, the Government has sent abroad each year a constantly increasing number of students, and Siamese Government students in Europe now number over 300. (Applause.)

In England and Scotland alone the number at the present day is 235. These students have been educated in nearly every University in the United Kingdom, and some of them who have not reached the University standard are also being educated in the various public schools, and we have in England here a bureau for rising students. The business of this bureau is to look after the students and to place them in various places of education. We have also a University in Bangkok and this University collaborates in every way just as a European University. At our University in Bangkok the present personnel includes eight foreign Professors and lecturers, and the Siamese staff now number thirty-three. The medical school of our University is being organised and administered in close collaboration with the Rockefeller Foundation, which, in addition to other benefactions, has generously agreed to provide part of the salaries of six foreign professors in the Medical School and of three lecturers for the Pre-Medical course, as well as the whole salary of one teacher of English in the University for a term

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of years. The Foundation has further undertaken to furnish the means for sending selected Siamese students abroad to take up post-graduate and research work in medicine. One student last year went to an American school and has been accepted for such work by the John Hopkins University. These students, who have been educated abroad, on the completion of their courses will have to go back to Siam to render service to their country. (Applause.)

Professor L. A. WILLIAMS, Professor of Secondary Education in the University of Berkeley, California: I have just two things which I would like to say with regard to this proposed programme which has been set forth. One is this, that I seem to see in a programme as suggested propaganda of the League of Nations, and the League of Nations as propaganda in the United States has not at the present time passed beyond the partisan stage. In the United States our political parties are pretty clearly and sharply divided on this question. It seems to me, therefore, that it would be a very difficult matter at the present time to present to the teachers of the United States the programme such as has been outlined here this afternoon and ask them to teach that programme in the public schools.

A second point is, that we in the University of California and in the State of California are attempting to educate the teachers on this whole question of civic education. One of the requirements for every teacher in the State of California, before that teacher is allowed to accept a salary, is that he shall have taken a very definite course in what is called civic education. That course is generally divided into two parts. One part deals with international relationships, the other with the political organisations of the United States. Those two points are the core around which the course in civic education is developed, and every teacher in the State of California must pass a satisfactory examination in

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the history and development of the constitution of the United States and the relation of that constitution to other constitutions, treaties, international legislation, and the like. So you can see that in the State of California we are at least attempting to prepare our teachers to become civic-minded, not only United States-minded but world-minded. (Applause.)

Madame H. DREYFUS-BARNEY, Paris, International Council of Women: For the first time in my life I am very happy not to be a teacher—(laughter)—and that is because I am able to tell you frankly how much I admire this splendid effort, this magnificent reunion, and how it gives the women of the world great confidence to send to you their young people.

The International Council of Women is an organisation with many departments. Three of these departments are health, education and peace. We have found the best thing that we could do as an International Council was to accept the policy of assisting to foster the understanding of the International Court of Justice and of the League of Nations. As five-sixths of the world have accepted that great plan of international understanding we are doing our best to assist them, and I shall give you, as an example, an experiment that we have tried in France. We have gone to the Minister of Education. We have asked him if, before the school books should be made up-to-date, we should be allowed as an organisation to send not propaganda books but information books that were published at the Secretariat Office at Geneva to the different schools—primary, secondary and Normal Training Schools and the Universities. He accepted this offer. We also collected very valuable slides with regard to the history and the aims of the League of Nations. These slides have been asked of us by teachers in all parts of France. They are using them in their schools, and they are being circulated from one city to another most actively. We wish to

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do what we can to assist the teachers who are such busy people, who have so much to do, to give them these different materials.

With regard to the United States, I have just come from there, and I understand that the League of Nations there is still a partisan question, but fortunately we found there a very great spirit of broadness and of investigation. Several times when I was in the States I was asked to show these slides and to speak with regard to the League of Nations in the schools, because the heads of those schools considered that such an address was not propaganda but history. We cannot rub out facts. The League of Nations exists. It has accomplished certain things. Fifty-five countries belong to it. The United States itself is most active in co-operation with it, not politically, but in matters of health, limitation of armaments, sale of opium, or the white slave traffic. Fortunately the United States have not forgotten their international inspiration that sometimes has led the world.
(Applause.)

I have one more minute. I know you don't even need that one more minute—you know so much more about it than I can tell you—but I want you to know that we are bringing out a most interesting series of pictures for children. We are trying to show them what Pasteur and other great men have done for humanity. You all know that the Secretariat at Geneva has been asked to get a general referendum from all the countries as to what they are doing to teach aims of the League of Nations in the schools. Many of the countries have replied and in September at Geneva this great question will come up. A very great effort is needed on the part of you all, you who have so much to do really to carry on the spirit of the League's work, because with you necessarily lies the development of the child. I find all over that children are internationally minded.

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The great essential thing for them is to be internationally minded in the right way. Is it better to understand Moscow or Geneva? (Applause.)

THE CHAIRMAN: If we are to finish our programme this afternoon we shall soon be obliged to pass to the next question. We will listen to Professor DYBOSKI from Poland on Mrs Andrews' report.

Dr ROMAN DYBOSKI: I wish to be brief. I shall certainly not raise that objection to Mrs Andrews' report which was raised by an American speaker, because I am a friend of the League of Nations and I am quite glad to receive information about the League of Nations, although I must admit that it is a controversial question in America. But there is another thing I wish to say. Mrs Andrews has presented to us a dazzling vision of international law teaching in schools. I want to present another vision. Imagine that there was a number of schoolboys sitting here and they had heard that report. I think, with all due deference to Mrs Andrews, they would run and try to find a country where that plan was not adopted. If schoolboys and schoolgirls were asked to vote on such a course of instruction, I am afraid their verdict would be, "Let us not have it." (Laughter.) In my view this kind of information can only be smuggled into the classroom in the way suggested by Mrs Andrews, namely, in teaching other subjects. Avoiding technicalities, it is not so difficult as it looks. What about the treaties of the past? What about the Treaty of Westphalia and these other treaties? There are certain things about them that it is perhaps better not to dwell upon too much. They do not present a connected line of progress in the way of internationalism.

Now, with regard to present teaching arrangements, I think it is best to hitch on such teaching to what is done in the upper and secondary schools of the world. In most countries of the world there is a certain teaching given in the upper classes on the constitution of

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the country and of civic affairs with regard to one's own country. That is the proper place to introduce some information about the treaties under which the scholar lives and about the commercial treaties of one's own country with other States and political treaties with other nations. There is a league of nations to which we don't belong. I think we should introduce as much as is necessary and useful for secondary schools in the course of ordinary information and general history on one's own country, and the children would only be frightened if that international subject were to be introduced as a special part of their education. I have been shown a book here which I learned was intended for the elementary schools. Well, it looked rather big for them. I think one of the best ideas of Mrs Andrews' report is that teachers ought to be supplied with information on which they can build and which they can introduce appropriately. It will give the teachers a lot of study, but, of course, they are used to that.

THE CHAIRMAN: The question is whether you will proceed with the next question or whether you will discuss this one. (Cries of "Discuss this one.") Professor DESCLOS from Paris wants to speak on this first topic.

Professor DESCLOS, Paris: I simply want to say that the teaching of the activities and the aims and the work of the League of Nations has already been organised officially in French schools. This year in the month of May a short series of the civics course was given out in all secondary schools in France. The thing that was recommended by the speaker has already been done. It is already in existence and it has already been done this year in France. Moreover, a certain number of school children who showed themselves more particularly interested in the question of the League of Nations were encouraged to go to Geneva next September and to follow a course of University lectures that will be given there

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by distinguished members of the delegations of the League of Nations attending that assembly at Geneva.

To refer to the point that was raised by the preceding speaker, the information concerning the League of Nations was selected at the Ministry of Education and sent by the Minister of Education to all the masters and teachers who desired to speak on the subject. That is what has been done in France. (Applause.)

THE CHAIRMAN: The second subject for discussion is: "Is it advisable for schools to accept the study of some auxiliary modern language? If so, what plan or programme would be feasible?"

Mr ALEXANDER SZÖRENYI, Budapest: I should like to speak to the first part. I sent my name up.

THE CHAIRMAN: I am sorry, but there were at least fifteen people wishing to speak and we have a long list here now. Is there any who cares to speak on the second subject? If not, we will pass on to the third.

Mr SZÖRENYI: Just a few words in order to show you how important languages are in international relations. I want to tell you in one sentence that if I had not learned English I would not have been able to speak here on behalf of 12,000 Hungarian students, and they would not know anything about the work which is going on here. It may be that Professors who are present would mention it in their Universities maybe to a restricted audience who would hear them in their special curriculum, but certainly the great body of students could not hear so well as through my personal experience. I am very strong for having mixed schools teaching foreign languages, and I think many European nations, at least parts of the population, have that wish which I express here, that they should have a choice of languages. I have to tell you that I through the Hungarian system of teaching had to learn German. I don't want you to think that I am attacking the Germans. During six years I learned German and we had the chance

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of learning French, but we did not hear anything of English. I am glad to say that our Government are prepared now to teach English, but it is not sufficiently carried out yet for the lack of teachers. I plead here that those who are present and who can do anything in Eastern Europe or in other nations to teach languages should do their best. I don't know how it came to me that I should learn English, but I learned it and I gained more by it than anything else. I have no relation in the world who belongs to an English-speaking nation. I am very glad to have learned English, for the simple reason that the Anglo-Saxon language, although it is not absolutely good and is not faultless, is the best at the present time. I thank you very much. (Applause.)

WHAT IS AN AUXILIARY MODERN LANGUAGE?

MR S. B. LUCAS: I should like to ask a question. This question says: "Is it advisable for schools to accept the study of some Auxiliary Modern Language?" I must confess that I do not know what is the meaning in this connection of that word "auxiliary." Most schools—certainly all secondary schools—study at least one modern language. Most secondary schools study more than one. Most secondary schools in England study French and German. What do the promoters of this meeting mean when they say "auxiliary modern language?" May we know that?

THE CHAIRMAN: I am sorry, but I had nothing to do with the preparation of the programme or the framing of that question.

A DELEGATE: Does it not mean that your own language is the first and any other language is auxiliary?

THE CHAIRMAN: I think that would be a fine definition of the word "auxiliary," but whether that is the intention of the perpetrator of that question I am unable to say.

ANOTHER DELEGATE: It means an international language like Esperanto.

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ANOTHER DELEGATE: I ask you for a ruling as to what it does mean.

ANOTHER DELEGATE: May I say that the League of Nations defines Esperanto as an auxiliary language for international use and to be used side by side with existing national languages.

THE CHAIRMAN: Thank you. That will help me to decide the ruling that Esperanto is what is meant or some similar language.

A DELEGATE: I think the League of Nations explains best what is meant. There are two official languages of the League of Nations, English and French, and I think it is pretty obvious that an auxiliary language is an international language. There are two international languages apparently, these being English and French.

Mr LUCAS: Am I in order in moving that we pass to the next business?

THE CHAIRMAN: It is moved and seconded that we pass on to the third part of the programme.

Mr DONALD GRANT, Glasgow: I am very much surprised to find this International Association treating the subject of modern languages so lightly, without saying a word about it. I think in the present stage of civilisation that educators should be able at least to read and understand three languages quite apart from Esperanto. I say that quite seriously. Europe is still, in spite of the great dangers which upset her, the centre of culture and of civilisation and the centre of interest for people who are especially interested in the past and in the civilisations of the past. Now, you want to awaken an international mind in children and it may be good to give them information about codes of law, but, I think, it is much more important and more effective to give them information about peoples, for their ignorance of each other is one of the great problems of the present day.

We think that all the people not belonging to a certain nation are of a certain mind. If we travel and

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if we get in touch with other nations we get to know something about their customs, about why they are different from ourselves, and we are glad to find that they are different from ourselves. If we have that kind of background, if we know something of the language that an opponent speaks, if we know something of the background of our friend from Hungary, then we are able to make our geography and our history and our civics and our economics not only interesting but living, so that the children and the people who are teaching the children are interested in the subjects which they have to teach them. I think it is very important that teachers should not only have opportunities to travel but should be keen to travel. I think they should not spend their vacations in this country but should once in every three years at least visit other countries, and should have a certain knowledge of the languages of other countries.

THE CHAIRMAN: The third topic is: "In teaching the history of any nation and its relation to world progress, should the national aspect precede the international aspect, or how may the two ideas and ideals be harmonised in a satisfactory programme such as will not tend to break down national lines or decrease the respect of the citizens of a country for the flag of that country?" Dr NODA of Japan is unable to be present, but Mr OKAMOTO of Japan will open the discussion.

Mr S. OKAMOTO, Japanese Education Association: According to the printed programme, Dr Noda was to lead on this third question, but unfortunately he was asked to act as the Chairman of the section on Character Training, so he is very sorry that he cannot participate in the discussions of this very interesting and important question, and he asked me to say a few words about it on his behalf. He believes that nationalism can quite well harmonise with internationalism, just as a good individual can be a good citizen of a community or a nation without any conflict between his two capacities.

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It is true that among individuals selfish, haughty, self-conceited and narrow-minded people do not go quite well with their fellow-men and are sure to be hated and despised by them. And so it is true with selfish, haughty, self-conceited and narrow-minded nations. They cannot live amicably with other nations and are sure to be hated and to cause irritation and hatred. In fact, nations ought to be civil, polite and kind towards other nations, just as individuals ought to be towards other individuals. And just as individuals need to be taught to be polite and civil and kind, so nations need to be taught in these noble virtues. But, frankly speaking, the teaching of history, at least in some countries has been hitherto, I fear, if I am not greatly mistaken, inclined to encourage self-conceit and narrow-mindedness, and contempt for other rival countries, rather than to broaden the mind of the rising generation and foster the spirit of goodwill and brotherhood among nations. So we must admit that our attitude and ways and materials of teaching of history need to be revised so as to accord with our noble aim of humanity. Before I conclude, I must draw your attention to the fact that the word "internationalism" itself does not mean the abolition or annihilation of nations. On the contrary, it implies the existence of nations, for "international" means, as you all know, between or among nations. So I firmly believe that it is quite possible to build up a chain of humanity among nations through the whole-hearted co-operation and goodwill of nations, and for the achievement of this great noble aim we must look much to the impartial and enlightened effort of the teachers of the world, whose influence is and will be most powerful in this connection.

(Applause.)

Mr VAN KIRK, Ohio: The history of mankind presents a natural and logical process of development. We have passed from one age to another. After two pilgrimages around the world, and after a little study of

history I observe that we have now come into the international age and the cosmopolitan era of history and that world problems are logical and natural and necessary now. It seems to me that it would be eminently fitting and appropriate to have some ensign or symbol that would give visual expression to the logical process of history and the great fundamental ideas and principles underlying a cosmopolitan civilisation. It seemed to me that nature could furnish such a symbol. It instantly flashed upon my mind that the colour laws of light, the rainbow prismatic colours, should be such a symbol. I saw its significance instantly and I was reminded that when Kepler looked out upon the heavenly bodies and read their laws he exclaimed, "O, God, I am thinking Thy thoughts after Thee." And when we regard the luminaries of the physical heavens and read their laws we will find there the visual expression of the great laws and principles underlying a common civilisation. This flag that I am going to show you is based upon natural laws, not to take the place of national or any other designs, but simply to be a symbol to help us to realise our great ideals and objectives. If someone will kindly assist me a little I would show you this and briefly explain it. (Mr Van Kirk then unfurled his banner.) You notice here are seven stripes, the colours of the rainbow. They are produced by passing a beam of light through a prism. It is shown that the white light of the sun is made up of these shades and colours, and when you break up the light you see what it is made of, and when you reverse the order they go into white. This is natural law. These colours are naturally related to one another. One colour is independent of the others, yet they are inter-dependent. They depend upon one another. They are members of one family. There is a brotherhood, a family, a society of colours, which is symbolised when the human family is broken up, as we are, into nations and races and civilisations. These are

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not naturally antagonistic. We are shades of one family. There is a natural bond of unity in this differentiation of the world which is perfectly symbolised in the laws of light. And we recognise that the great ideals before us now are inter-dependence of nations and peoples, the solidarity of the world, the brotherhood of man, the community of interest, perfectly symbolised in the laws of light.

A DELEGATE: I rise to a point of order. I wish to know whether the gentleman addressing us is talking to point No. Three under discussion.

THE CHAIRMAN: The gentleman thinks that he is.

THE DELEGATE: I think he is wrong.

Mr VAN KIRK: The band of white is to show that a bond of union has been formed around the world by steam, electricity, and world organisation. Now, it is the business of the nations and of every institution to put forward a world programme that will tend to make the band of white wider and as wide as the stripes, showing that the social world plan has been developed to the same degree.

Mr CHARLES W. THOMSON, M.A., B.A.(Lond.), Scotland: In addressing myself briefly to the question whether history should be taught first from the national or the international point of view, I will simply give my own experience and my own method in teaching the movement from the national to the international. If we are to arrive at an international friendship, as we all wish to do, it cannot be arrived at by blotting out the facts of the past. If we assume for the moment the truth of Darwinism—(laughter)—whether are we going to have peace of mind by taking the present Tennessee method, or simply shutting our eyes to it and fearing it, or taking the method of H. G. Wells and instead of fear taking joy out of the facts—if we have risen from a lower organism, then that is something to be joyful about and not to be afraid of. So it is with internationalism.

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Whatever international feeling we may have must be based upon the facts of history, and those facts are there in all their crude and ugly colours. We cannot get rid of it by any kind of hiding the truth. But how are we to get our children to rise to the idea of internationalism? I think it is very easy and it can be very easily illustrated from this ancient city in which we are engaged in deliberation.

Five hundred or six hundred years ago a man could not walk on the High Street of Edinburgh without a sword at his side to defend his honour, and if another man went between him and the wall it was his bounden duty to run that man through, or at any rate try to run him through. Since these days our traffic has been regulated. We may have some little doubt as to whether the regulation is to keep to the right or to the left, but whatever we may think of the law it is settled by the white-gloved policeman who determines all these questions for us without leading to bloodshed. Four hundred or five hundred years ago in these streets of Edinburgh it was a common thing for two families to fight out their family feuds on the causeway, on the plainstanes, and while one may be proud to have in his veins to-day the blood of the Campbells or of the Macdonalds, we are glad to think that this does not now inculcate the necessity of running through the other fellow because he happens to have the opposite name. If a Campbell meets a Macdonald all the world over, he shakes his hand as a fellow Scot. All these sections and clans are proud to meet each other, wherever they happen to come together.

Now, so it is, coming a little further up the scale, with the ugly feud that kept Scotland and England at War for hundreds of years. For hundreds of years those two nations, thrown together in the same island, simply cut each other's throats, and in fact when they got the invention of gun-powder they used it to blow

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out each other's brains. Now, to-day they pick each other's brains. They learn from each other. They are proud of meeting each other and they give assistance in the great British Commonwealth. Now, is it a great stretch of imagination to get a child to rise from that to the next stage and realise that the age-long feud, say, between France and Germany is a thing that the next century will look back upon not with shame but with joy that we have got beyond it. Let us tell the truth but teach the lesson of the nobler truth that is killing the old facts. The old ugly facts are brought in in an era of greater blessing, greater brotherhood and greater joy. We must not forget—we have never to forget—the great events of the world. America must never forget 1776. It would not be America if it did. France cannot forget 1789. As regards Scotland, those of you who were at the College of Art last night may be surprised to know that those bagpipes that you so much admired were at one time forbidden. A Scotsman was not allowed to keep a dirk or a claymore or a set of bagpipes. Are we Scots going to give up the bagpipes because in the past they have been used in playing one to war and when slaying one another? We will play them but it will be to the nobler feelings of common humanity. Rudyard Kipling sums up this matter well when he says,

“That man’s the best Cosmopolite
Who loves his native country best.”

I love the world better because I love Scotland first, and I am proud of the part that Scotland has played in this sense that it has never been an aggressive country. It has been too small to be that. (Laughter.)

Had it been bigger, we don’t know what we might have been led into, but we were a little country defending ourselves and therefore we are proud of our history, except on the one occasion when we went and invaded

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England and got what we deserved at Flodden. We should not have done it. Is it not a beautiful omen of the near future that the sons of the ancient Vikings, those warriors who came over to Scotland and ravished our Eastern Coasts, are the first nation that has the courage to-day to say, "We will disarm, we have no quarrel with anybody. Nobody is going to take our country, and we don't want to take anybody's and, therefore, we are willing to disarm." Isn't it glorious to think that Denmark should be the first country to do that, and I hope that Scotland, bagpipes and all, will be amongst the very earliest to follow the example. Well, what is the answer to the question?

Certainly we must keep our nationality. We don't want all the brothers in a family to have the same hair and the same eyes, nor even the same temperament, but we do want them with all their differences to be brothers and to act with a brotherly spirit, and that is what we as nations should do. Let us keep our history as far as it has points worthy of pride. Let us tell our children frankly the points on which we were wrong, and let us look forward to the time when nation shall not strive against nation but keep all their principles, and when we shall be willing to live together in friendship and co-operation the world over. (Applause.)

Professor WELINKAR: I am sure every one of us desires from the bottom of his heart that the young amongst us should have the international mind. We are all agreed about that, and that is how this question has arisen, but I think we shall also agree that the true way to internationalism, as has been pointed out by the last speaker, is through nationalism. We could not by flying as it were over nationalism get into internationalism, but I think that the man or the boy who has been taught to know the really great things that his country has accomplished will be in a position to rise to the international mind, and I think that is what the poet meant.

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We have been told it was Kipling who said it. I always thought it was Tennyson, but it does not matter. But as the poet has said, "That man's the best Cosmopolite who loves his native country best." Therefore, I think, that if history was taught as it should be—I mean the history of different nations—there should be no conflict whatever between the national and the international mind. But there is one thing I want to add, and that is, that the pressure of studies makes it often difficult for the student to add to the course in national history another course in internationalism, and that is the situation that we as practical educationalists have to face. There is not time to give the student a course in internationalism. But I should suggest that if we could add lectures showing the unity of humanity and showing how each nation has in the past contributed to the development of that civilisation to which we are heirs, we shall have done a great thing. (Applause.)

THE CHAIRMAN: You have listened to discussions on these three topics. What will you do with them?

Professor WELINKAR: We should simply inwardly digest them. I don't think we can pass any resolutions on these topics.

THE CHAIRMAN: Do you make a motion?

Professor WELINKAR: Yes, I move that these topics be not made the subject of resolutions at all.

THE CHAIRMAN: It is moved that these topics be not made the subject of resolutions. Is that motion seconded.

A LADY DELEGATE: I object to it.

Mr ALEXANDER SZÖRENYI: I move that a committee be appointed to sum up the discussions of the day.

Mr S. B. LUCAS: I will second that. I think the Executive Committee will expect something from this meeting as the result of our discussions.

THE CHAIRMAN: It is moved and seconded that a

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Committee be appointed. How shall that Committee be appointed, and how large a committee? Do you wish to revise that motion of yours, Mr Szorenyi?

Mr SZÖRENYI: I would suggest a committee of seven.

THE CHAIRMAN: It is moved and seconded that a committee of seven be appointed by the Chair to consider all three questions and make recommendations at our Friday's meeting.

A DELEGATE: Will this committee take into account the feeling of the meeting? We have no means of telling whether the meeting has approved in principle of what Mrs Andrews proposed.

THE CHAIRMAN: We hope the committee will be ready to report such feeling in order that the Executive Committee may have what they call a world attitude on these topics. There is a question before the house. Are you ready for the question? All in favour of the motion that the Chair appoint a committee of seven to report on Friday will raise your hands. (Agreed.) The Chair is appointing Professor Williams of California as Chairman, Mr Lucas of London, Mrs Labarca from Chile, Mrs Andrews from Washington, Miss de Calvo from Spanish America, Dr Vocadlo from Czecho-Slovakia, and Mr Charles W. Thomson of Scotland. Will that Committee meet right here now?

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Friday, 24th July.

Mr W. E. WING, Portland, Maine, in the Chair.

THE CHAIRMAN: I am asking all of you who care to speak on any of the topics to send up your cards and indicate on the card the topic on which you wish to speak. The programme is very full this morning, and unless there are objections we are to proceed with the discussion of the topics as they appear, and take the reports of the Committees during the last half-hour or three-quarters of an hour, and as our leaders, Mr Foggin and Dr Mekie, on topic No. 1 have not arrived we will proceed with the discussion on topic No. 2, "What phases of (a) literature, (b) music, and (c) art may the Federation set up as susceptible of universal application?" Dr Dyboski, Professor of English Literature at the University of Cracow, Poland, will be the leader, and for the benefit of all those who do not understand English readily I am asking the speakers to speak very slowly and distinctly.

Address by DR ROMAN DYBOSKI, Professor of English Literature, University of Cracow, Poland.

Dr DYBOSKI: I was asked on Wednesday to act as leader of the discussion on question No. 2 concerning literature, music, and art in the programme of secondary schools, and in attempting to do so I find myself confronted with two difficulties. First of all, it has become apparent from our discussions so far that the framing of the questions set for our debates has, unfortunately, led to some over-lapping. Certain points have already been raised which appear on to-day's programme. The question of literature, music and art in the secondary school curriculum has already been discussed on Tuesday and has been introduced into the very report of the Committee of which I was a member. That would, of course, mean that there is not much left to be said on this subject.

The second difficulty is that I might put my answer to this question very briefly, and it would perhaps be a

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great relief to most of you. I mean, in reply to the question, "What phases of literature, music and art are susceptible of universal application?" I should simply reply in two words, "The best." In fact, I am quite of the same opinion as the Germans in their wise maxim : "The very best things are just good enough for our children." But I realise that it is advisable to make a sort of selection, because there is very much that is very good in the literature and art of our nations, and some of which an Englishman would describe at once as being too high-brow for secondary school children, and therefore not to be tackled in the first place. Well, if a selection is to be made of the best things in literature, music and art, for the use of a secondary school curriculum with a view to universal application, how is such a selection to proceed?

One thing is clear. It cannot take the form of an international canon being set up by us and recommended to the world, for various reasons. First of all, if we were, for instance, to draw up a list of what is popularly described as the "hundred best books," they would not be the same in the case of each nation, because each nation looks at the work of all the other nations together from its own angle, and certain things appeal more to it than others, and that is as it ought to be on the whole. Again, the hundred best books would not be the same for each teacher and each class either, and that is as it should be, because there ought to be a certain amount of personal liberty and personal selection with regard to the particular audience one is dealing with at the moment. One's own personality ought to be national. Personality is the very life blood of the nation and ought not to be suppressed.

On the other hand, one might say, "Well, let us proceed by exchange, certain things ought to be kept out of the programme and that will bring us near to a canon." Well, such lines of exclusion have even been suggested. In our discussions here it has been suggested that works of great literature which glorified too much military ex-

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ploys or ultra-nationalistic ideas should be kept in the background and not made outstanding subjects of reading. If that is so, what are we to do with the Iliad, which is mostly full of fighting? Again, if works of eminently national inspiration were to be excluded, what are we in this era of music to do with Chopin? Everyone knows that he was not a Pole, but most of the best of his work is inspired by national Polish folk-song, and no one would think of excluding him from the department of music. Wagner, again, was eminently national. One more instance which I should emphasise, and that is Kipling. Well, I had a remarkable experience. I read to my students in the Warsaw University some of Kipling's poems recently published. There was a flame of enthusiasm in the faces of all my pupils, and they received sound moral education in the reading of those poems, and I certainly should not think of excluding such an emphatically Imperialistic poet as Kipling from a world curriculum. Then there is also the question of morality. One might say that we must select our works in secondary schools with a view to the morality that they inculcate. It has been mentioned that some great works of literature are inspired by morality completely foreign to our modern national and European international morality. For instance, the Odyssey glorifies cleverness, which often amounts to trickery, and yet who would exclude the Odyssey, which appeals to the secondary schools. Again, other people would say, dwell on works advocating morality, which is apt to be made international, rather than on those which are inspired by morality resting on a strictly denominational basis. Well, what about Dante, the great poet of Catholicism? Surely we would like to make people acquainted with certain passages of Dante. What I would exclude from the secondary school curriculum are books which are often introduced, namely, books which moralise too purposefully, where the purpose is too apparent and repels the children. They usually acquire a

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sound abhorrence of books where the moral purpose lies apparently on the surface. I became acquainted with a British book called "Sandford and Merton." I don't think that ought to be commended to pupils outside the British Isles. Some of the greatest work of Tolstoi is not that where he deliberately assumes the gown of the preacher.

There are certain general rules which I think it would be advisable to lay down. Firstly, I think one thing must not be overlooked. In what we select for reading and study, in art and other things, we must take into account the necessary appeal to the youthful mentality and the interest of the pupil. We must not repel the pupil by things which are not interesting to young people. We must introduce a larger amount of the literature of adventure and romance. We must not be afraid of that. Some people think that is trash and that the school ought to discourage these. That is not so. "Moby Dick," for instance, is one of the greatest books in literature. Conrad inspired the noblest principles of chivalry and provided food enough to the spirit of adventure and romance. Secondly, we must not be too national in our tastes. We must rather develop interest in the outstanding works of foreign nations, teaching the pupil to know those nations by the highest things they have produced. When the pupil gets firmly established in his mind the fact that German music is amongst the best in the world and that Italian painting is amongst the best in the world, he will feel quite different for the rest of his life towards Italians and Germans. I don't think readers of Dante and Goethe will ever be able to hate the Italians or the Germans.
(Applause.)

Thirdly, and this is one of the most important points I would like to dwell upon, we must set a high standard and prepare that for a lifetime's reading. We must think of the future, when the pupils will be no longer pupils, but will read for themselves. No book can be read too

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late in life. I am grateful to the German teachers in secondary schools for having cultivated a certain quality of mind in this respect. I have found in conversation with my English and American friends that the way they have taught Shakespeare in school acts as a deterrent to the pupils reading and seeing Shakespeare on the stage for the rest of their lives. It is not so in other countries. The pupils read perhaps just one play and receive an impetus to know more. We ought not to give too much, but just give a taste which will then develop.

As regards the high level of morality, and especially the social morality in the works selected, I think that is a flower which will blossom of itself when we keep to the highest levels of art. Nobody is of opinion that Socrates demoralised Athenian youth, and similarly we are all of opinion that no work of the very highest art, when it is properly dealt with, can be immoral in its influence. Within these conditions I think a selection, determined by social and civic values which are of particular interest to them, might be made. Wordsworth may seem detached and remote from what attaches us now to our great industrial problems; Goethe may seem cold and majestic, but such creators must be brought well within the reach of the student to give him a wisdom which is far beyond the realm of here and now.
(Applause.)

THE CHAIRMAN : There are seven minutes left in which to discuss topic No. 2. Is there anyone else who would like to speak on it?

Mr SZÖRENYI rose to speak.

THE CHAIRMAN : I will recognise Mr Szörenyi, but at the risk of being unparliamentary I shall recognise people from widely different sections of the world as a rule rather than recognising the same individual on these topics again and again. I think that is what we are trying to

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do, to get a world view on these topics. If no one wishes to speak on this, Mr Szörenyi may have two or three minutes.

Mr ALEXANDER SZÖRENYI, Budapest: I just wish to make a remark about these "one hundred best books." About two or three months before I came here one of the secretaries of our University Library asked me, as one of his acquaintances who knows a bit of the literature of the world, to make out a list of those hundred best books. At the same time he made up a list, and when we met and put them together I do not think that we had five books the same.

THE CHAIRMAN: There being no one else, we will proceed with topic No. 3, "How may the study of science in secondary schools and its relation to the world community be carried on? How may the radio, the victrola and aeronautics be made to serve the general purpose of education calculated to bring the nations more closely and sympathetically together?" The first speaker is Mrs Gordon Wilson.

Address by Mrs GORDON WILSON, London, Association of Assistant Mistresses in Secondary Schools.

Mrs GORDON WILSON: I am in a very fortunate position, I think, because all our discussions in this room have made it very clear that in considering the study of many of the subjects of the secondary school curriculum we must face the fact that the effect of those subjects will naturally be a heightening of the national attitude of the child and pupil. We don't admit for a moment that this particular effect will in any way prevent the pupil from developing a proper international attitude later on, but it is obvious that literature, history, and languages must all increase the pupil's perception of its membership of its own nation first.

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Now, when we come to the study of science we have no such national content to overcome. We are dealing with a universal subject-matter, whether the school may be the basic course of science, which pursued in that school will concern itself with the action of force or matter, the composition of matter, or, if you prefer it, the action of force in matter; and this basic course of physics and chemistry may vary as far as the order in which we conduct the different sections, but its content will be the same all the world over. To this basic course we shall add, I hope, a study of nature. The course will generally in English schools be preceded by a course of observational nature study. In the middle part of the school the exigencies of the curriculum may force that out as a formal subject, but it is generally kept alive through the action of school clubs, expeditions by means of which the child acquires that content of knowledge and experience by observation which enable him to pass on to the more formal study of biology, which should have for its end the impressing upon the child the recognition of that wonder and marvel which is alive in whatever form it manifests itself. This subject-matter, as you see, is universal.

What are we to say about the scientific method? The child who has worked in a laboratory, who has been given as a member of the laboratory a problem to solve, who has worked perhaps alone or with a companion, who has stood at various stages in that problem and made its contribution to the work of the whole, from which the work has proceeded, will have gained a perception of the value of truth and of the difficulty with which truth is attained. He will have realised that scientists throughout the world are characterised by their patient investigation, their steady testing, their unwillingness to dogmatise, their readiness to subject any theory or hypothesis, however well loved and however differently attained, to the tests suggested by other investigators, and their readiness to

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discard them as soon as they are found lacking in any way. It is hard to see how a child with such a training, in whatever part of the world he may be, can ever develop a partisan attitude of mind.

But if to this scientific method and this universal matter you add the study of the history of science—and I feel that sometimes that is rather neglected—you will develop as you pass on through your scientific course a collection of the names of the great scientists which will become familiar household words—Archimedes, Galileo, Kepler, Newton, Mendel, and Pasteur. How can a child who thinks of these as the people who have contributed to knowledge and advancement have any feeling but that men of science have always been citizens of no one country, but citizens of the world? To this force you must add the fact that there is, I think, no subject which gives such opportunities for the development of the international attitude of mind, but you must have the teacher who is aware of that and who is either himself or herself of the international temperament. (Applause.) I think that in order to get that, you are doing a good deal in having conferences such as this, in which teachers do get in touch with one another and realise the community of their aims and aspirations.

I own frankly that I had to ask what was meant by a victrola. I did not know what was meant by the victrola and I was glad to recognise that it was quite a familiar friend, the gramophone. I realise that I am only to talk five minutes and that I am supposed to be opening this discussion, so I shall leave it to people who have more experience in dealing with these things to point out to you possibly the ways in which these various inventions may be used. I would say that to me they seem to have an inevitable effect. They are after all the cause of the breaking down of that isolation which, whether in the individual or in the nation, is the cause of the develop-

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ment of national peculiarities and anti-social characteristics. (Applause.)

PROFESSOR WELINKAR: What is the victrola? The lady was not alone in not knowing what it was.

THE CHAIRMAN: The victrola is in plain English a talking machine.

A LADY DELEGATE: The victrola is the American version of our familiar "His Master's Voice."

THE CHAIRMAN: A very good suggestion has come to the attention of the Chair. I want to pass it along. There is a teacher here from Cincinnati, Ohio, who suggests that we have an interchange of school papers which are edited by the students themselves. This teacher from Hughes High School, Cincinnati, very much desires to exchange their paper with similar papers from all over the world. If you are interested please address communications to O. Hughes, Hughes High School, Cincinnati, Ohio. I want to tell you that the Hughes High School is a very excellent school. At this Conference I presume that the names of the delegates and their addresses will be published in the proceedings, so that other addresses will be available for the interchange of school papers. Is Mr Foggin in the audience now? Then we will proceed with topic No. 1, and Mr Foggin, Director of Education in Southern Rhodesia, will be the leader. Will you please come to the platform, Mr Foggin?

Address by Mr L. M. FOGGIN, Director of Education in Southern Rhodesia.

MR FOGGIN: May I preface the few remarks which I propose to make with the statement that I don't profess to be a leader in this discussion. I have no special claims to a very highly specialised knowledge of the subject of geography, and I am not even a teacher. My teaching days, I am afraid, belong now to the remote past, but

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the subject on which I wish to address a few remarks to this meeting is that of correlation, and geography is one of the subjects which lend themselves specially to that method of teaching. Particularly can geography be correlated with history and with literature; and I think that it is the practice in schools of the best type, probably in all countries, to arrange that there shall be a special correlation of these three subjects. It has occurred to me that in certain circumstances the correlation might even be overdone. We must take care, so to speak, not to obliterate the text by the multitude of cross-references. At the same time correlation is a very valuable instrument, because it does enable us to fix in the mind of the child the impressions which we wish to drive home; and, further, obviously in connection with the teaching of history and geography one cannot understand one of these subjects without having a good understanding of the other.

When we come to consider countries and their climates, their resources and their people, we are led straight away into history, and it is only the union of the historical ideas with the geographical that enables one really to understand things—to understand why, for example, the character of the Hollander is likely to be different from the character of the Swiss, and why his national energies are likely to take a different form. And it will enable us, more especially perhaps those nations which have taken a leading part in the colonisation of the world, to understand why it is impossible to make a good American, in the ordinary sense of the term, of a Philippino, or a good Englishman of a South African Boer. They have their national characteristics which are decided by their environment and their history, and the more we understand these things, taking both the historical and the geographical points of view, the more likely we are to form a correct estimate and to judge each other wisely and sympathetically.

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I take it that if one can set down one particular object of this Conference as its primary one more than another, it is that we wish to bring to bear the influence of schools and educational institutions generally upon the improvement of international relations. I think that our Conference can have no clearer and no better object than that. I think moreover that these difficult problems are more easily and more hopefully attacked in the atmosphere of education than in practically any other conceivable medium, and therefore teachers of all ranks and grades have here a great opportunity. This particular section of the Conference is specially interested in the subjects pertaining to secondary education, and therefore I will go back to this for a few moments before I conclude.

We all know that text-books have certain definite weaknesses, that they are written too exclusively from the national point of view, that the British text-books glorify the history of the British race and tend both to minimise its failures and to ignore defeats when they have happened, and I think that that tendency is not confined to Great Britain. I have heard that it applies pretty strongly to American text-books on history. (Laughter.) Well, that weakness which is so universal does give the teacher, especially the teacher whose mind is imbued with the necessity of contributing what he can to the improvement of international relations—it provides him with a great opportunity. It is his duty and his privilege to dot the “i’s” and cross the “t’s” and to do a great deal more than that where the textbook goes wrong, and if he does that I am quite sure that his influence will be of great value in these matters.

It seems to me that the age of competition has now at length really passed its apex. If we go back sixty or seventy years we find that the doctrines of what is known as the Manchester School were prevalent throughout Europe, and I think probably were followed with admiration in America and other parts of the world

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too. Those ideas certainly are less popular than they were. I think perhaps we find them in Britain more in the atmosphere of the House of Lords than anywhere else in the present day. Well, competition is still one of the chief motive forces in national and international life, but we are beginning to see its defects, and it is because of the strong feeling of the defects which a competitive era has inherent in it that many of us believe that the greatest movement for the benefit of the human race which has recently been brought to birth is that of the League of Nations, and certainly we in Britain and in many parts of the world hope that before long those nations which now stand outside the League will join it and will strengthen it—(applause)—and when that happens we believe that that will be one of the initial steps towards the superseding of this era of competition, of which I have been speaking, by an era of co-operation, which is a far finer ideal. (Applause.)

Now, I think that is the general thesis which I wish to place before you, but as one of the special subjects of this morning session is that of geography, I should like to give to the Conference my impressions of a very interesting experiment in the teaching of geography which I had the privilege to witness recently. I went down one day a few weeks ago to one of the great public schools of England, and I think you will understand how necessary it is for us who live at the ends of the world, in isolated and distant countries like Southern Rhodesia, to take every opportunity that we can of a great old country like this to find out the methods and the ideas which are circulating there. In the course of my stay in this country I visited a good number of schools, but the particular school to which I refer this morning is the great school at Horsham, Christ's Hospital. That is one of the most interesting schools in the whole world in many ways. It is entirely a boarding school of over 800 boys, and its special feature is that these boys are from every class of

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the population. The headmaster when I was there told me that he had boys connected with the landed and ancient aristocracy of Britain, and he had also boys in that school who are sons of farm labourers in English counties. There is a complete mixture of classes, and those classes amalgamate in the most helpful and most hopeful manner. I asked the headmaster how this amalgamation was brought about, and I throw this out as an idea which perhaps you may take home and think about. He said: "Our special costume puts them all on a level; the moment they come to school they are put into the special garb of the Christ's Hospital boys," which most of you will be familiar with, the yellow stockings and short breeches and long blue coat with a belt round it and silver buttons. He said that was the great solution of the social difficulties in a school. He said he was quite sure that by the time a boy had been in the school for a year or two there was very little idea in the minds of other boys whether that boy was a descendant of some former peer or whether he came from the labouring classes. Now, that is a fine thing in boys.

But I want to speak to you specially about the teaching of geography at Christ's Hospital. There it has been planned upon lines which were quite unfamiliar to me. In the ordinary way, even in this advanced civilisation, children are given text-books and they are told to get up certain pages, and they have certain commentaries and questions and answers and examination papers on them, and that with perhaps more of practice than there used to be years ago is the method still largely used. I am sure it is used with a great deal more intelligence than it used to be, but still that form of teaching is not by any means extinct. Now, in Christ's Hospital things are differently arranged. I expect that everyone in this room is familiar with what is known as the Dalton Plan, and the method of geography teaching in Christ's Hospital is, I think, a variant of the Dalton plan.

There are two rooms in which the subject of geography

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and no other subject is taught, and those rooms are equipped as laboratories in the Dalton sense. I don't mean that they have a vast amount of scientific apparatus. They have not, although they have the ordinary apparatus which one associates with the teaching of geography. But they have a particularly fine and complete library, and what I wish particularly to draw attention to is the wonderful use which they make of their library. They have geographical ordnance maps number by number; and the boys, when they come to the age at which they can take the heart out of a book by their own effort, are encouraged to make a synopsis or précis of individual articles. That précis is usually looked over by the master, and with illustrations which the class discusses before they are finally agreed upon, forms part of the permanent records of the class. The pupils have also a card index system of references so that any boy in that room can get hold of any particular kind of geographical knowledge which he wishes to acquire, by using the card index system of the library and the précis which have been made by other boys.

They have also little groups co-operating in the solution of particular problems, and I found this a most interesting aspect of their work. I found a class at work on the geography of India. They certainly had text-books, but they were not confined to one, and there were little groups of boys who were engaged on different aspects of India, and making observations, putting them down carefully, and recording them in the form of charts; some of these dealt with population, some with rainfall, others with economic conditions, others with matters like the Indian canal system; and those boys worked out these things with the greatest care. They had large sheets of paper, and their masters did not mind if they spoiled a good many in the course of their endeavours to get a useful result. But in the end when that group of boys had finished their work there would be a chart worthy of permanent record, and these charts were exhibited on the

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walls of the room so long as India was the country under discussion. I found there a most beautiful chart showing the irrigation system of India in its fullest detail.

Now, there was a fine instance of co-operation in school work by small groups of boys, and those results were then made available more generally through the efforts of those boys. The charts which were of greatest value were kept permanently and entered in the records and reported on cards, so that when they were put away in large drawers they could again be available. It seemed to me that that was a singularly fine method of teaching geography. If any of you are specially interested I may say that the schoolmaster who teaches geography at Christ's Hospital, who is a great enthusiast on the subject, is Mr Booth. I don't think he will be offended if I say that anyone who is interested in the subject should enter into correspondence with Mr Booth, although I have no permission on his part to say so.

I have not had much time for preparation. It is solely owing to the efforts of the Conference Secretary that I am here at all, but I am glad to have had this opportunity. I trust that some small element of seed may be mingled with the chaff in what I have said. (Applause.)

DISCUSSION.

Miss R. A. PENNETHORNE, Organising Secretary of the Parents' National Educational Union, London: I only want to keep you, I hope, less than the allotted five minutes to describe an educational device which is being found exceedingly useful in some of the many schools affiliated to our own Union. It is the carrying out of an idea which is already familiar to you, and which we should certainly not claim to have invented. Most of you when you came up from London to Edinburgh were studying that delightful book published by the Railway Company

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called "The Other Side," telling you all that you could see out of the window. There is an equally excellent book by another title, describing the journey from Paddington to Penzance. We have set our children to work all over, not over the United Kingdom alone, but all over the world where there are schools connected with us, upon way-books on the same principle, with a scale map illustrating the actual journey, whether it be by rail or by road or on foot, with notes and illustrations, in remote country districts. Those notes and illustrations form practically a ledger diary. For the children who journey perhaps by train three or four stations into a central secondary school daily, it becomes a local history and geography, and in holidays, at those week-ends when so many parents nowadays take their children considerable distances by motor, it becomes a real exploration. So illustrations may be collected, the notes may be at first meagre, more in the form of questions, showing a want of information, but gradually such a book will become a storehouse of first-hand and otherwise unattainable information. The exchange of such books between school and school and district and district forms not only a most valuable link, but enables people to see a country from the point of view of those who are at this moment living in it, and to regard it as our youth does in every generation.

So we not only have that correlation on which Mr Foggin so wisely touched between history and literature and geography, as it is already enshrined in books, but we get local legends which are nearly dying out and hopes for the future which are not yet realised; and so I would suggest to this meeting that if any of you, taking up that idea in the form in which you can all see it printed on your journey away from Edinburgh, would work it out in your own schools and with your own scholars, and if you would perhaps through this Federation arrange for some such interchange, we shall have a number of true exploiters and understanders of other countries growing

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up amongst us who will be able to say one to another, "I am a part of all that I have seen." (Applause.)

THE CHAIRMAN: Are there any others who would like to speak on this topic?

Mr W. H. WARMINGTON, State Teachers' College, Commerce, Texas: Nature made me brief. I propose to abide by the laws of nature. What I have to say scarcely warrants my coming to the platform, but lately I have met with a recent publication which I think will be of interest in view of this discussion, and I thought I would like to give you the title. It is an Atlas of English Literature, quite recently published by the Century Publishing Company of New York. I won't take time to describe it, but anyone interested can get a prospectus of the publication by writing to the publishers, and I am sure that you will find it interesting, for I have found it very useful in my own classes, and I suggest to you that you try it out. (Applause.)

Mr HARRY A. DOMINCOVICH, Philadelphia: The Hughes suggestion interested me, and I have been jealous of it ever since. The exchange of school publications in America is very common in our schools, and it occurred to me to suggest that if there were other schools than the Hughes High School in any other country, it might be well to publish a list of those in the proceedings, because I should like to be able to exchange our publication in the Germantown Friends' School. In the Orient there might be such an exchange. I think that kind of work belongs to Dr Dunn's province of the American Junior Red Cross. I suggest that we have on the bulletin board a sheet of paper on which we could write the names of schools willing to exchange publications, or possibly in addition to this the printing of those names in the Proceedings somewhere.

THE CHAIRMAN: Your address will be printed there. If

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anyone wants any more direct and active information they might leave their names with our Secretary, Miss Wise, immediately after the meeting, and she will have them typewritten and posted or mailed.

Mr ALLAN G. OGILVIE, M.A., B.Sc., Royal Scottish Geographical Society, Lecturer in Geography at Edinburgh University: I confess to be rather disappointed to find that nobody has spoken to the first part of the agenda at this section of the meeting. I hoped to learn in what manner and, indeed, where world history is taught in secondary schools. I am afraid that it is little taught in this country in the secondary schools, but I do not know fully. At least history was taught at both the schools which I attended, two famous schools, one Scottish and one English, I regret to say in the manner to which the first speaker referred, purely a technical method, and it was in no way taught along with geography. To refer to the educational system for one moment prevailing in Scotland to-day, I might express my regret that the regulations now coming into force in the schools have divorced history from geography, that geography, in the secondary schools, is becoming associated purely with natural science and physical science, and I am sorry that the opportunity for the correlation of the two subjects seems to be in process of being lost. However, perhaps we may be able to restore it or re-create it.

In the agenda I read: "How may a satisfactory body of materials be brought together as a foundation for the study of geography in combination with world history?" It would seem to me, as a geographer, that it is for a combination of historians and geographers to address themselves to this problem, for none would seem to be so remunerative in a broad programme of education. However, I would suggest that it is for the historians to set the ball rolling, and to prepare a programme for a suggested curriculum of world history which might be introduced in secondary schools. It will then be for geographers to col-

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laborate and they will find it a congenial task, and an easy one, because geographers can see geography in almost all the great movements and the great events of history. Therefore, I should like to see a movement set on foot in a Congress of this character which would be of world-wide application, dealing with a curriculum of world history. And perhaps I might suggest that it is not merely on the most obvious aspects of history that the correlation of history and geography can be worked out. For instance, there is one field of history which would appear rather unpromising in this respect, and that is constitutional history. And yet, if I may be reminiscent for one moment, I would tell you of the fact that when I went to a great University as a student of history, I was started upon a course which included the whole of British history, or English history as it was called, being at an English University, and one hundred years or so of European history.

That was the text-book, and there were others of course, but neither in the introduction to Bishop Stubbs' great work, nor in any of the books, nor in the lectures provided, was there any introduction to the geography of the North German Plain and the regions of Central Germany, where the institutions set forth in the original documents in Stubbs' Charters were formed, where the germs of our British Constitutional and English legal systems were produced. I would suggest, therefore, that even in studying such a thing as the British Constitution and the legal system which has gone all over the world, it is relevant to introduce an account of such a region as the Forest Land of North Germany, with its gradually extended clearings of sedentary agricultural populations, before presenting the purely political history. So with that suggestion of what seems a most unpromising study of correlating world history and geography, I will leave this subject. (Applause.)

Dr OTAKAR VOCALDO, Prague: I hope I shall be allowed

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to say a few words on some limitations of our present teaching of geography, limitations that arise from the new conditions, from the new map of Europe. First of all, I should mention that it is obvious that under geography, which really is the subject of this second point, the correlation of the facts of physical geography to the study of the development of peoples is one of the most fascinating subjects and could, I think with great profit, be introduced into the higher classes in secondary schools. I should like to see an attempt made at the interpretation of the history and vissitudes and also of the mental equipment of the various peoples in relation to their territory, to their environment. Of course great strides have been made in this direction, in this country, and also in America, but the fact is that this science of geography is still in the making.

That is one topic, but to turn to another point; the teachers of geography are confronted with a great difficulty with regard to the so-called new countries of Europe, which, in fact very often, are some of the oldest communities of Europe, like Bohemia or Poland. It is very confusing for a conservative mind—because teachers ought not to have a conservative mind, and I am sure they have mostly an open mind—to find new-fangled names in the so-called new countries of Europe, but they ought to get accustomed to the new map. The difficulty is that there are few sources for teaching modern European geography. I find, for instance, in one of the most popular English books on geography, written by a Professor of a prominent British University, whose name I don't mean to mention—he is a great scholar, but in his book on the geography of Europe, in those chapters which deal with new countries, I find some amusing, at any rate amazing, misstatements. For instance, only to deal with my own country, he says, with regard to the origin of the Slovaks that they came to Hungary after the battle of the White Mountain in

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the seventeenth century, and so on, and that they were free and safe because there was a treaty of religion. That is a huge misstatement and I cannot understand how it is possible to be made, because after all there are many scholars, especially scholars on this subject, and the greatest scholar is a Scot, Profesor Watson, to whom he could easily have referred, but that book appeared in a new edition last year with such curious misstatements.

Of course, there are no sources available because these countries are new—at least they are reconstructed—and the opportunity for finding the data is still scarce, because most sources are written in those languages which are not so well known, and those books which are helpful are sometimes very biassed. Now, it is absolutely necessary that a sort of revision should be made, and that can only be done by co-operation which would take into consideration the changed conditions of the European map. In this respect, also, the topography ought to be mentioned. Of course, people usually say that the big nations have changed the names of the places in smaller nations, but that is really not so. It is quite natural that they should use, for instance, in the geography of Austria-Hungary, in American or British maps, the German or Hungarian names, but those names are not the original names in these Slavonic or other Roumanian territories. They are mutilations.

It is very uncomfortable for people who have old atlases to find there are three names for some places. In Hungary, for instance, every town has three names, but why is that? That is simply because in those towns there are three peoples. There are even separate suburbs of various nationalities. Take, as an example, Bratislava, from the original name of the founder. Then the German name which is derived from that is Pressburg, and then the Hungarian name is Pozsony. It is very useful for

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reference to find three names on the maps, as different sources use different nomenclature. In most cases, however, it is enough to give that name which is current among the majority of the population. Names that are used most often in the west are chiefly based on former official topography (German or Magyar), which presents curiously mutilated forms of the correct place names as used by the population itself. I think this great handicap could be removed if the gazetteers would take into consideration all names, even if there are three, which are used by those various sections of the population.

Mr OGILVIE: Excuse me for intervening again, but it occurs to me when mention has been made of other books and atlases in the course of the discussion, and when there is a reference to it in this part of the agenda, there is a very marked lack of books suitable for the teaching of history and geography together in the English language, and, I think, perhaps it would be well if I mentioned one book which has been recently published in this country, and which, I am happy to say, is by our distinguished editor of the *Scottish Geographical Magazine*, Miss Marion I. Newbiggin. It is entitled "The Mediterranean Lands" and it is one of the very few successful attempts to correlate ancient history and geography.

A DELEGATE: Would Mr Ogilvie give us the name of the publisher?

Mr OGILVIE: Christopher, London.

THE CHAIRMAN: The time is up for the discussion of these topics. What will you do with this discussion?

Mr G. R. PARKER, Catford: I think the Federation will expect some kind of report of the discussion this morning. Unfortunately any such report cannot be submitted to this group again, since it has no further meeting. I should like to propose that a Committee of

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seven be appointed by the Chair to consider the three topics which have been discussed this morning and to draw up a report which may be presented to the plenary session to-morrow, and I move that resolution.

THE CHAIRMAN: Is that motion seconded?

A DELEGATE: I beg to second the motion.

THE CHAIRMAN: It is moved and seconded that the Chairman appoint a Committee of seven to draw up resolutions and submit them for the consideration of the plenary session to-morrow. Is that a resolution or a report?

MR PARKER: To submit a report, which I take it may contain resolutions.

THE CHAIRMAN: All in favour of that resolution hold up your hands. It is the vote. I have great pleasure in appointing Mr Ogilvie of Edinburgh as Chairman of that Committee. The other members are Miss Chin of China, Miss Crocket of Southern Rhodesia, Mr Dominovich of Philadelphia, Dr Vocaldo of Prague, Mrs Gordon Wilson of England, and Dr Dyboski of Poland. Will you kindly meet in front of the table here immediately after the adjournment and make your own arrangements.

Before we take up the business of the morning I want to tell you that these reports which have been carefully weighed by our Committee will be further taken up at the plenary session. Then before going to the plenary session these reports or resolutions will be submitted to an editing committee of the conference, so that I hope you won't spend too much time in discussing these at this session. At the plenary session you will be better able to understand how our resolutions here will fit into the whole scheme of the Conference. We decided on Wednesday to take up the report of Tuesday's meeting topic by topic. I will now ask the secretary to read the first resolution.

THE SECRETARY, Miss MARJORIE WISE: "The Committee recognises the value of the Palais Mondiale

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at Brussels in promoting the ideals which the Federation stands for and recommends that the assistance of this institution be used in such manner as may seem proper to the Executive of the Federation."

THE CHAIRMAN: You have heard the resolution read by the Secretary. Are there any further discussions or amendments, or what will you do with it?

It was moved and seconded that the recommendation be adopted, and this was agreed to.

The Secretary then read the second recommendation as follows:

"The following subjects suitable for students between the ages of twelve and sixteen are in the Committee's opinion adaptable to a programme in which all countries may with advantage co-operate. Some of these subjects may be incorporated into the regular curriculum of secondary schools; others may be treated as optional subjects which may be taught to students showing aptitude for such subjects.

"List of subjects: (1) Universal Biography; (2) Visual instruction in geography and topography of great towns; (3) Literature; (4) Aesthetic instruction; (5) Elements of civics and economics.

"(1) Universal Biography: The Committee is of the opinion that lives of the great men and women of all times and all countries are eminently suitable for study in secondary schools. The Executive of the Federation should consider the question of compiling a suitable textbook of Universal Biography, giving in an attractive manner the lives of men who have contributed most to the development of civilisation and to the raising of the ideal of humanity. We need to have for use in schools an 'international Plutarch' as a member of the Committee remarked."

THE CHAIRMAN: What will you do with this recommendation?

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It was moved and seconded that the recommendation be approved and this was agreed to.

THE SECRETARY then read the following: "(2) For the promotion of international friendship the Committee recommends visual instruction in geography (including the topography of great towns) by means of films, charts and other similar mechanical devices."

Approval of this recommendation was moved and seconded and agreed to.

THE SECRETARY then read the following: "(3) As a valuable aid in spreading ideas of humanism among the young, we recommend the compilation by a representative committee of experts of an Anthology containing the best passages in the world's great poets and prose writers, in original (when they are in English) or in English translation."

Mr ALEXANDER SZÖRENYI: I think there should be a Hungarian book too. I was on the Committee and we did not have the word "English" there and I am surprised to hear it now. It wants explanation.

Professor WELINKAR: I had no opportunity of meeting the Committee again. I thought that as the deliberations of this Conference were in English we should have the translations in the first instance in English, but it is now before the meeting and that certainly may be changed, if it seems to the meeting desirable to do so.

THE CHAIRMAN: The Chair awaits any motion.

Dr ROMAN DYBOSKI: I would suggest that such a book should be issued in all the separate languages of the nations.

Professor WELINKAR: I agree to this amendment.

THE CHAIRMAN: Do you wish to make an amendment? Will you send it here?

Dr DYBOSKI: I beg to move that this be added, "That such a book would afterwards be issued in the different languages of the nations represented at the Federation."

THE CHAIRMAN: It is moved and seconded that we

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amend by adding the words, "That such works be published in the languages of the members of the nations represented in the delegation."

Professor WELINKAR: I should only like that instead of saying, "such a book should be published" we should say that such a book *may* be published.

Dr DYBOSKI: I accept that, because we must leave it to each nation to get out such a book.

The recommendation was then agreed to, with the following addition: "That afterwards such a book may be published in the languages of other nations in the Federation."

THE SECRETARY then read the following: "(4) The Committee recommends the promotion of aesthetic culture in secondary schools by providing art galleries in larger High Schools, by arranging visits to well-known museums and art galleries and by simple talks on art by able and well-informed teachers."

Mr ALEXANDER SZÖRENYI: Providing art galleries for schools, I think, is a little misleading. It might mean establishing a gallery in each school, which would be rather impossible. I think it should be changed somehow. It should be made possible for children to go to museums and art galleries and there to have explanations.

Professor WELINKAR: I think it says "By providing art galleries in big High Schools."

THE SECRETARY: Could it not read "for" instead of "in." It would then read: "The Committee recommends the promotion of aesthetic culture in secondary schools by providing art galleries *for* larger High Schools." Is that what is meant?

Professor WELINKAR: I may explain that I deliberately put in the word "in" because we are not providing for them, but if it is thought desirable to use "for" instead of "in" I have no objection.

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Mr S. B. LUCAS : I am rather afraid that we shall be going beyond the possibilities of the situation if we suggest that a High School or a Secondary School should normally contain an art gallery either in it or for it. However much we may desire to facilitate the art education of pupils in Secondary Schools, I do not think a school is the place for an art gallery, and I would suggest that this particular paragraph should be either omitted or reconsidered.

Dr DYBOSKI : May I venture to move an amendment which will keep the recommendation within the bounds of modesty and possibility, "By facilitating access to art galleries for the students of the schools." If they have an art gallery of their own, all the better. I should like to move another amendment, which, I think, is only necessary because of an oversight in the drafting of the recommendation. There ought to be included in this recommendation an express mention of music and of song, because that was suggested. It ought to be included by giving students opportunities to hear good music and teaching them songs.

THE CHAIRMAN : Do you make that as a motion?

Dr DYBOSKI : Yes, that is an amendment.

Mr LUCAS : I am quite prepared to second the amendment in the sense of the mover of it, which is, I believe, that there should be access possibly to art galleries and that music should be included. If the meeting will accept the sense of that, I am quite sure that the exact wording can be framed afterwards.

Professor WELINKAR : Yes, I quite agree.

THE CHAIRMAN : Under the existing circumstances of the various suggestions that have been made, it would seem to me much simpler if we reconsidered this resolution and have a re-draft. Would you be willing, Professor Welinkar and Dr Dyboski, to draft that while we proceed with the other business.

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Professor WELINKAR: Would it meet the wishes of the Conference if we simply left out these words, "By providing art galleries in or for larger High Schools." We might simply leave that out, because we have got immediately following, "By arranging visits to well-known museums and art galleries," and then we could take up the second thing about music and song and add it to this.

THE CHAIRMAN: Would you please do that and we would present it to them.

THE SECRETARY then read the following: (5) In view of the interests of good citizenship and as a necessary help in promoting the right understanding of international relations, the Committee recommends the introduction of elementary instruction in civics and economics. A committee of experts should draw up a syllabus of the topics to be treated in connection with these subjects."

A DELEGATE: That possibly comes better in connection with another recommendation that is coming up with regard to the teaching of history. It is covered by it.

THE CHAIRMAN: But this is a specific resolution.

It was then moved and seconded that the recommendation be adopted and this was agreed to.

THE CHAIRMAN: Now we will listen to the report of the Committee of seven which was appointed yesterday and of which Mr Lucas is the Chairman.

Mr LUCAS: It is my duty to report on the findings of the Committee which was appointed to put into proper form the feeling of the meeting as expressed on Wednesday last. We have endeavoured to do that in the following recommendations and resolutions. Our report is as follows :

"Recommendations of the Committee appointed to frame resolutions on the discussion which took place at

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the meeting of the Secondary Education Section, July twenty-second :

“ (1) That it is essential that a definite place should be provided in the teaching of such subjects as history and civics for an account of the measures which have been and are being taken to secure and maintain harmonious international relations.”

To that resolution we have added this Note :

“ The Committee suggests that in order to further the above policy the Executive of the Federation should appoint a Committee of five members charged with the duty of investigating this subject and presenting a definite programme for discussion at the next biennial Conference.” I have pleasure, Sir, in moving that first resolution. I think it is quite clear and I do not propose to make a speech upon it unless further elucidation is desired by the meeting.

THE CHAIRMAN : Mr Lucas has moved the adoption of the first resolution. Is that motion seconded? It is moved and seconded that we adopt the first recommendation. All in favour raise your hands. That is the vote.

Mr LUCAS : The second resolution reads as follows :

“ That conditions in the world of to-day demand the teaching of at least one modern language other than the Mother tongue in Secondary Schools.” (Applause.) I beg to move that.

THE CHAIRMAN : It is moved and seconded that we adopt recommendation No. 2. All in favour raise your hands. It is the vote.

Mr LUCAS : The third resolution reads thus :

“ That the history of the Mother country should be taught first, stress being laid on the peculiar services rendered by it to humanity. In like manner in the subsequent teaching of world-history the contributions of all countries to human welfare should receive impartial

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consideration. In proceeding from national to world-history the ideal of advancing from conflict to conciliation should be kept prominently before the pupils." I move that.

THE CHAIRMAN: The adoption of recommendation No. 3 is moved and seconded. All in favour raise their hands. It is the vote. Before adjourning, I have to tell you that Mr Lucas has suggested that this group recommend to the plenary session that they publish a monthly or a quarterly journal.

Mr LUCAS: At the risk of being regarded as a victrola, I beg for just a sentence or two to explain this suggestion. I feel that this meeting will be with me when I remark that we do not want the inspiration and the sense of friendliness that we have derived from meeting together here to evaporate, and that one of the very best methods of keeping in touch with each other and of advancing the ideals for which we have come together would be the publication from time to time of an official journal of the Federation, which would enable us to keep in touch with what is going on, and it seems to me that this Secondary Education Section of the Conference might well have the honour of presenting that suggestion to the plenary session to-morrow. (Applause.)

THE CHAIRMAN: It is moved and seconded that Mr Lucas be appointed a committee of one—(laughter)—to present that resolution to the plenary session to-morrow. All in favour raise your hands. It is the vote.

Before adjourning, we are to listen to the revised wording of Clause No. 4: "The Committee recommends the promotion of aesthetic culture in Secondary Schools by arranging visits to well-known museums and art galleries and by simple talks on art by able and well-informed teachers, also by providing facilities for pupils to hear suitable music and song."

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Miss ELIZABETH B. MITCHELL, Biggar, Scotland: In this resolution ought not something to be said about aesthetic instruction in the school itself? I would suggest that schools should have well-chosen reproductions of some of the famous pictures of the world. There is far too much of the ugly type of bad surroundings. Every teacher, I am sure, agrees with me that if you want to bring art into the scholar's life, there is no better way of doing so than by bringing it actually into the school itself. Could something of that kind not be done?

THE CHAIRMAN: It is still possible to amend this resolution, if you care to do so.

A DELEGATE: I would suggest the addition of the words, "and promote an art atmosphere in the school."

THE CHAIRMAN: It is suggested that we amend the resolution by adding the words "and promote an art atmosphere in the school." It is now in order to move the adoption of this recommendation.

Mr G. R. PARKER, Catford: Does the alteration really contain the spirit of Dr Dyboski's reference to song? Does not the altered report merely recommend the hearing of song? Was not the suggestion that there should be the practice of song as well as the hearing of song? May we hear just what the wording was about song?

THE SECRETARY: It does say that quite distinctly, "To hear suitable music and song."

Dr DYBOSKI: I move that it be, "To hear and cultivate."

THE CHAIRMAN: It is moved and seconded that we strike out the word "hear" and insert the word "cultivate."

Professor WELINKAR: No, it is to add the words "hear and cultivate."

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THE SECRETARY: It will then be "Also by providing facilities for pupils to hear and cultivate suitable music and song."

THE CHAIRMAN: Does that meet with the approval of the assembly? Any other discussion or amendment? (Agreed.) Before adjourning, I want to say to you people that I am very grateful for this opportunity of meeting you all. I consider it one of the greatest and finest experiences of my life, and I thank you for your kindly consideration of my shortcomings as a Chairman.

Mr DYBOSKI: An important item of our procedure has been omitted by you, because you are not in a position to speak about it. I have the greatest pleasure in proposing a vote of thanks to our Chairman for his efficient conduct of our discussions. (Applause.)

Professor WELINKAR: I have very great pleasure in seconding this proposal.

Mr G. R. PARKER: May I ask you to show your appreciation of the Chairman's conduct of the meetings and the value of his services by enthusiastic applause. (Loud applause.)

THE CHAIRMAN: I am sure I appreciate that. It is now in order to adjourn until two years hence, when I hope we shall all meet again.

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Friday, 24th July.

Sir CHARLES CLELAND occupied the Chair.

Mr GREGOR M'GREGOR, M.A., Director of Education, Fife, the Secretary : I am directed to announce a change in the arrangements. Her Grace the DUCHESS OF ATHOLL having been unexpectedly detained in London in connection with her Parliamentary duties, Sir CHARLES CLELAND has kindly consented to preside, and he now occupies the Chair.

THE CHAIRMAN : No one regrets more seriously than I do the absence of Her Grace. I am sure we were looking forward to joining in this important meeting under her presidency, because there is no one in this little country at least who is more entitled or better able to discuss great questions of education than the Duchess of Atholl. She began at the bottom rung of the ladder and went through all the various phases of educational preferment—shall I call it?—by being herself a member of a School Board and an Education Authority and gaining experience and knowledge of the subject, and now in the highest sphere of a member of His Majesty's Government she is giving to the nation that experience which she has gained practically. I am glad to say that in agreeing at a moment's notice to occupy the Chair I am satisfied that the duties will be very simple. There is no Chairman's address on the programme, but there are some very distinguished speakers present whom we are most anxious to hear, and we want to hear them without loss of time.

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Address by Sir ROBERT BLAIR, London, Royal Society of Arts, late Chief Education Officer of London County Council.

Sir ROBERT BLAIR: It is a very difficult problem and a very tough one that of the adolescent. It involves both his education and his employment. We might, in fact, call it fourfold or quadrangular, because it has four heads, or, more suitable to its difficulties, four angles. These are—the raising of the school age; compulsory attendance at day continuation schools; lowering the unemployment insurance minimum age, and compulsory notification of engagement or dismissal. One of these, you will see, belongs to the Ministry of Labour, two belong to the Ministry of Education, and the fourth one is divided between these two Government Departments. We must, however, find a solution of the whole four in one. Detached solutions of the various issues will not be very valuable. It needs but a glance at the field of education to see that into the elementary schools—and I just want you to remember that I am speaking from an English experience; I have some acquaintance with Scottish education but I am speaking to-day directly from an English experience—it needs but a glance at the field of education to see half a million children coming into the schools every year and half a million children leaving them. And if you look a little closer you will see that at about the ages of eleven to fourteen the main body, that large body of children, is being separated into two streams, one the minor stream which moves away through into schools of more advanced type, and the main stream which continues on until the compulsory requirements are legally fulfilled. If we follow this minor stream we shall see that it again sub-divides into various branches, passing through senior schools, eleven to fourteen years, central schools, eleven to fifteen, training schools, technical schools, commercial schools, roughly of about three

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years each, and lastly into the larger bodies of secondary schools from eleven or twelve to eighteen years of age.

As we watch these little streams passing through their various channels we begin to think that the simile of stream is hardly an apt one, and that it would be more appropriate to think of the process as that of what the chemists call fractional distillation. Those of us who have an acquaintance with these schools of more advanced type know that there is one dominant note running through them as well as through the elementary schools, and that is to give to all the pupils such an intellectual stimulus as will be an abiding possession to them, reminding them all through their adult life that there are higher joys than those of a mere material existence. But we also know that according to the emphasis laid on the subjects, due to leaving age or to the future avocation of pupils, these schools are classified on the one hand as humane and on the other hand as utilitarian, and all values in between. On this aspect of our problem it may be sufficient to add quite briefly that there is need for more of those schools, but there is no room for lowering the intellectual standards. (Applause.) I say that particularly because I have in mind what I think is a certain debasing of the currency of one word which is going on at the present minute, debasing the meaning of the word "secondary." There is plenty of room for variety and kind but to extend indefinitely the time-honoured type of secondary school would be in effect not to provide the means of a liberal education but to multiply vocational schools of a clerical character. In any event, the opportunities for secondary education are inadequate and the uneven distribution of them keeps secondary education beyond the reach of many deserving pupils, particularly in rural districts. Wales, happily, is different.

I must now return to the main body of pupils in the elementary school, for it is with them that the problem of the adolescent arises. So soon as the compulsory con-

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ditions are legally fulfilled, the half million pupils spread themselves out into every variety of juvenile occupation, the largest number on manual labour. Many are appropriately placed. Unfortunately, there are many misfits, as the numbers that constantly change their occupation show. A considerable number seek in vain for work and soon find their way on to the decline which leads down into the area of the unemployable. Before the War education used to complain of blind alley occupations. Now blind alley occupation is no longer a concern. The real concern of parents and of the young people on leaving the schools is the question of employment at all. Now it is here, just as those half million pass out of the schools, that we touch the lower edges of our problem. Childhood has finished legally and adolescence has begun.

Adolescence and adolescent are not legal terms. The official word, or, I should say, the statutory word is "young person," but education likes a good mouthful and "young person" does not fill the mouth very well. The lower edges are marked off by eighteen years of age and by the minimum wage fixed by the Trades Boards. Two Government Departments deal with the employment of the young persons, the Ministry of Labour and the Board of Education, each operating a different Act of Parliament, two Acts of Parliament dealing with the same subject. The Ministry of Labour works through the Labour Exchanges Act and the Board of Education operates the Choice of Employment Act. I do not know how the thing stands exactly at this moment, but I know that something like eighteen months ago in the London area we had London working with the Ministry of Labour and the Authorities in the outer ring working through the Board of Education. You can see how the placing of young children in a large industrial area like that is complicated by working through two different Departments and along two different lines. However, the Minister of Education and the Minister of Labour have

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agreed that an inquiry should be opened as to the means by which children or young persons enter upon and retain a suitable employment. It is something like a month since the Minister of Education said that he would institute that inquiry—in fact, that the two Ministers would institute that inquiry—and he hoped soon to name the personnel to the House of Commons. Unless it was done last night the personnel has not yet been named. I am wondering whether there is any hitch in getting in the industrialists, because the intention is, I believe, to bring on to that Committee a large number of industrialists. Unless they are brought in to help to solve the problem of unemployment, the problem cannot be solved. (Applause.)

Well, now, the seriousness of the position of the unemployment side of our problem can easily be seen from the figures of the Ministry of Labour Gazette. There is a standing figure of over 60,000 boys and girls between sixteen and eighteen years of age out of employment. I feel quite sure that there is another figure of similar size for those between fourteen and sixteen years of age, and even if we take the first 60,000 as our guide we must remember that those figures are given to us by a Ministry which does not see the whole problem. It is dealing only with the figures of those registered at the Labour Exchanges. I feel with some confidence that the figure approaches nearer to 200,000, and you will remember too that that figure does not represent a standing army. The number is constant but the individuals change, and therefore, the figure of 60,000 which is the basis of my calculation does not represent the whole truth; it only represents part of the truth. In a depression of long duration you will see what happens. Those numbers of unemployed are gradually working their way up into adult life without ever having been broken in by employment. (Applause.)

There is growing for us a very serious problem of

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a permanent character, not a temporary one. Those numbers in a few years will go on rising from half a million to a million of the adult population. I want to look at the lateral sides of our problem. I give it you maximum and minimum. On the one side we have employment and on the other side we have education or schools. Now, I have dealt with unemployment briefly. I come now to the educational side. The educational side involves, first, a small number of juvenile unemployed centres. It is a condition for the sixteens to eighteens in getting the dole that they must attend a juvenile unemployment centre. The other education, provided for those who are in full time work, is really the evening school. A few generous employers have arranged for voluntary day continuation schools of short duration, but on the whole the provision of education for the young person who is fully employed in the day time is the evening school. Now, I know those evening schools well. I know their extent, I know their breadth, I know what appeal they make to the young person, but I also know this, that of the young persons, of that half million, who leave school—I am not thinking of the rest who go away into the higher schools—at fourteen years of age, only something like twenty per cent.—and that is probably a high figure—enter evening continuation schools. So that you have got I should say, eighty per cent. of those who remained in the elementary schools, who are eighty per cent. of the whole, roughly, you have got two-thirds of the elementary school children who, after the close of their elementary school life never enter again any place of higher education. Further, I know this, that since the War, due to the War no doubt, and due to the consequent economic depression, the figures of attendance at evening schools for those between fourteen to eighteen have fallen from 400,000 in 1913-14 to 320,000 in the year 1923-24. In other words, 80,000 out of 400,000 of the whole have fallen out of attendance,

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fallen out partly, as I said, due to economic depression, because in whole areas the evening schools were closed and some of them have not been re-opened, but partly also due to the dispirited movement in which those young people, especially those out of work, are living. It is in the time of hard work, in the boom years of work, that we have the boom years of schools. It is in the time of depression and unemployment that we have thin school attendance at continuation schools of any kind.

Is that enough education for a democratic people? My estimate is that on the whole it amounts to a fifth standard education. Is a fifth standard education a basis for a democracy which governs such a large thing as the British Empire? Is that a basis for managing the State on the part of those who have had handed down to them one of the most splendid heritages of all the ages? Is that enough? If that is not enough, what shape must our reform take? We have come, as I might say, now to the forking of the road. There are two directions straight in front of us—perhaps I should say, obliquely in front of us, one to the right and one to the left. The one leads to continuous education full time up to fifteen years of age in the elementary school; the other proceeds by day continuation school at first from fourteen to sixteen and afterwards from sixteen to eighteen, roughly, say eight hours a week out of a forty-eight hours working week. Those are the two currents of thought as to what should be done. I will endeavour as far as I can to state impartially what those two methods claim to do.

The arguments in favour of the day continuation school may be briefly summarised thus. Boys and girls of fourteen years of age have already spent nine years in elementary schools. New experiences, internal and external, are beginning to crowd in upon them. Wage-earning is attractive. They are longing for a new adventure. They desire to break with conditions which they

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regard as fit only for children. The change from school to industry is severe and should be eased by the support of sympathetic teacher advisers who must necessarily make a much closer study of industrial conditions than is possible for the elementary school master. Continuation schools which give eight hours' instruction as part of a working week of forty-eight hours will enable this passage from school to industry to be effected with the maximum of regard for the young persons' interests. The stimulus which his new wage-earning interests give him renders him readily responsive to the new educational atmosphere of the continuation school. The day continuation schools belong to the sphere of higher education, and an assimilation to the staffing conditions of secondary schools becomes possible. On these and other such grounds the concurrent education and employment are advocated by one school of thought.

On the other hand, it is urged that day continuation classes cannot be organised without intolerable inconvenience to employers. It is urged that another year of elementary school life will strengthen the character of the young persons against the evils to which a working life exposes them. The prevalence of unemployment among both juveniles and adults makes it very desirable to remove from the labour market those who are least fitted for industrial work. The idea is to take the whole body of pupils of fourteen to fifteen off the labour market. What temporary savings in education estimates and in local rates are now made by not doing that we are for the most part losing by swelling our expenditure on unemployment. (Applause.)

Stretching the school age to fifteen will compel us to reconsider how far some measure of vocational bias as distinct from technical training can reasonably be imported into elementary school education at its later stage. Both these plans have legislative sanction. They are both to be found in the Education Act

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of 1918. In Scotland it is only necessary to get the signature of the Secretary for Scotland and the school age can be extended legally to fifteen. (Applause.) I thought you knew that already. (Laughter.) In England, on the other hand, the local education authority must move first, and each local education authority, acting separately, must get the consent or approval of the Board of Education before it can do either of these two things. At the present moment in England the local education authorities are not rushing to do either of them. (Laughter.) And I am very doubtful whether we shall not pass through a fairly long period before you will see them driven, as you may say, by their own motion either to stretch the school age to fifteen or to adopt the system of day continuation schools.

They have passed through a period when their expenditure has grown very considerably and amongst the local education authorities there is a very large tail that will see to it that what is required of them now to put their existing educational system into better order shall be done if they can or if they will before they pass on to newer fields of expenditure. Now, personally, I should be content to leave the problem with its double aspect to the local education authority to choose the solution according to the needs of its area. You will notice, by the way, that the two things are not quite alternative. I do not know whether friends of up to fifteen mean that the thing shall close there or not, or whether they intend to have continuation schools from fifteen to eighteen. At all events, there we have it at present, up to fifteen. I would be content to leave it to the local authorities to choose between these two, but if you ask me personally to choose between them—which is a different thing altogether—without a moment's hesitation I take my stand on the side of the day continuation school. (Hear, hear.)

And these are my grounds. I want to know what

becomes of the young people at fifteen after they have had their one year which the friends of the other plan want. I do not believe for one moment that the system of day continuation schools cannot be organised. At all events, if industry, if particularly the employers on the one hand or labour on the other thinks that the organisation cannot be done, let them come and sit down round a table with some of us who have seen the other side and believe that it is possible, and work out or find out whether the thing can be done or not. (Applause.) That is just one of the advantages I see that may arise from this inquiry to be held by the two Ministers. We may get the employers into position and ask them to shew us how this thing cannot be organised, but I want to say here that we must take care to lay, by Statute if necessary, an obligation on every employer of young persons to see that every young person in his employment is under an obligation to get more education than he has had in the elementary school under conditions of which the local education authority can approve. Employers used to be responsible for apprentices. I see no reason why they should not still maintain a responsibility, and I would not let them off with a money payment. That is the easiest of all ways to get rid of a real difficulty. I would leave them both morally and legally under an obligation to see this thing through. If that were once put to them in terms of that kind by public opinion—if we can make public opinion to rise to that—I have no fear whatever but that a working solution can be found.

As to removal from the labour market, that is, of course, an economic proposition and not a constructive education one. Still, see what will happen. If you take the children away for one year you may say you have removed the unit, but if you give them constructive education of a minimum of eight hours a week out of a forty-eight hours working week during the period, you have removed two-thirds of the whole. The compensa-

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tion which the continuation schools give us is this. They give us the children in contact with the school for four years, whereas the other gives contact for only a further year, from fourteen to fifteen. The leaving age of the elementary school in 1870 was ten. At long intervals it was raised to twelve, to thirteen and to fourteen. I want to ask those who are in favour of merely stretching the school age to fifteen whether they feel that what has been done in the elementary schools—I am not blaming anybody; I am only dealing with the facts—since the school age was raised to fourteen justifies a claim to extension of the school age further from fourteen to fifteen. It is not that I am seeking to blame anybody. Whatever one may think about criticising or not what has happened, I say that is one large factor in one's judgment as to which of these two roads one is going to choose.

In England and Wales the staff of our elementary schools needs a much wider training than it has yet had. (Applause.) You know, England and Wales have not been so long at this business of education as Scotland has, and in the short period of fifty years she has made magnificent strides. You have had centuries in this country. Still, England has far too many supplementary and far too many uncertificated teachers, and the number of graduates in the elementary schools is practically negligible. That is a serious state of things. I know it can be improved, but it has helped in my judgment to throw itself on the side of the continuation schools, where we can at once get a staff which approximates, if not as good in quality, to the staff in the secondary school.

It is disappointing to me to be standing on a platform here advocating, so to say, the day continuation schools, for I saw them in being with 50,000 pupils on their rolls. I saw them in being from tenth January 1921, to the end of July 1922 with, I tell you, 50,000 pupils on the roll. I would not publicly expose my regret at what happened

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and certainly not shew my own lacerated feelings if it were not that I believe that to go over the ground of that disaster has much value when we begin again to consider what we should do on the next occasion. You may say—what were the causes of that disaster? The first cause was this: that re-action which had been awed into silence by the great emotional efforts of 1918, again in a period of economic pressure, was able to rear its head. It was able to get on platforms and shout by 1921 and 1922. Second, the Government was weak. We had a Minister of Education to whom English education owes an enormous debt, but throughout England if that Minister of Education had been prepared to perish he would have reared for himself an imperishable monument. (Applause.)

The London parents were alarmed at the handicap which appeared to fall on their children. May I just explain that the London area is inside an outer ring with a large number of local education authorities. Under the Act of 1918 it was possible to begin the day continuation schools in one area and not in the others. One other point. You don't hear much of West Ham up here. It is as big as Edinburgh and Leith. West Ham fell into line and the two did their best, but the position was this. It was obligatory on the young person within these two areas to attend day continuation schools; outside it was not obligatory. One was obliged to attend day continuation schools and the other not obliged. The parents believed that the one who was not obliged would get the post and the one who was obliged would not get the post. In these circumstances you can understand the alarm of the parents, and the politician stimulated that alarm as hard as ever he could, and the reactionaries stimulated that alarm as hard as ever they could, and so that alarm came in as one great factor. The pupils themselves—it shews that we are advancing both educationally and independently—read the Press

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campaign and they saw the indecision on the part of the authority, and they began to drop out from their attendance, and I can remember going into the higher education committee one Thursday afternoon and saying, "Attendance has now become so thin that it would be a waste of public money to proceed further. I recommend that the Council close the day continuation schools," —and they were closed.

Before that there had come a municipal election in 1922, and I daresay you all know what mischief can be done at election times. (Laughter.) Rarely perhaps in the history of education has a band of workers more united in heart and mind started out on a difficult piece of missionary work. Rarely has such a band of workers seen the promised land without being able to enter it. Rarely, indeed, has the cup of success been dashed from the lips with such pitiless indifference. The history of the British Empire is strewn with magnificent failures, but the Britisher is stimulated by his failures, and you may be perfectly sure that John Bull will come again. (Applause.)

Juvenile Unemployment.

Address by Principal A. P. LAURIE, Heriot-Watt College, Edinburgh.

Principal LAURIE: In discussing possible remedies for Juvenile Unemployment I take my examples from Scotland, and more especially from Edinburgh. This does not mean want of appreciation of what is being done elsewhere, but only that I confine myself to what I know from personal experience.

Before the War those engaged in Education were much troubled by the number of boys in the cities entering on Blind Alley occupations. In order to try and meet this evil the Juvenile Employment Exchanges were started in connection with Education Authorities. These Exchanges have done useful work, but after all they cannot

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create employment. The number of apprentices that can be absorbed by industry at any given time is limited, and, therefore, the number of vacancies in a given city is limited.

During the recent period of unemployment matters have got much worse. There is no employment at all for many of the boys, and as a result it has been recently stated on the authority of the Government that some 2000 young people are without occupation or training.

Every year the number of juveniles, who have no chance of learning any useful trade, is increasing, and the country is consequently faced with a very serious social problem.

One way of relieving the Labour Market has been pressed in vain on successive Governments, namely, to temporarily raise the school leaving age. For instance, the plan might have been adopted of keeping at school up to the age of sixteen all boys who have failed to find employment, a method already adopted in other countries.

The excuse that has been put forward has been want of accommodation, but part-time education could easily have been arranged, and would have checked the demoralisation which is now taking place, and various empty public buildings could have been temporarily used.

In Edinburgh voluntary part-time classes in commercial and domestic subjects for boys and girls who had left school were first opened in 1914. The classes meet from two till four, and are carried on for thirty-six weeks. The enrolments have increased from 94 in 1914-15 to 680 in 1923-24. It would have probably been a good investment for the country to pay a small maintenance grant for children over the compulsory school leaving age.

It is not too late even now to adopt some such proposal. The pressure on the Labour Market would at once be relieved and the young people find employment.

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Once the plan was established of continued education it would never be abandoned. One of the main difficulties in the way of such a continued education is that to interest the average working-class boy it must be practical.

If courses are to attract the working-class lad they must include workshop instruction, but there are many school workshops available after three in the afternoon. A little enquiry reveals the fact that the educational plant in the way of workshops and laboratories in our cities is used very extravagantly, and is standing empty for many hours a week. Difficulties may arise with Trade Unions if anything beyond manual instruction is given, but that problem is in course of solution in Edinburgh in so far as the building trades are concerned, the Unions having agreed to a plan by which boys are to get one year's training in the building trades before commencing their apprenticeship. The new Central Schools have workshops, laboratories and drawing classrooms available after three or four in the afternoon, into which boys could be drafted who had failed to find employment.

I do not propose that no general education should be given. In our part-time apprentice schools for the Printing Trade in Edinburgh we make general as well as craft education compulsory, but unless some form of workshop teaching is introduced, it is difficult to interest the working-class boy in additional schooling.

TRAINING OF APPRENTICES.

In addition to opening the schools to young people unable to find employment up to the age of sixteen, either with compulsory classes or with payment of a small maintenance grant, the development of part-time education for the apprentice to the skilled trade requires to be developed.

At present the Trade Unions have been compelled owing to the exploiting of boy labour to limit the number

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of apprentices, and they have also followed the policy of dividing the trades into narrower and narrower groups.

This policy is standing in the way of industrial development. The increase in the use of automatic processes and machine tools is making the old-fashioned craftsman out of date. What is required to-day is a man with a general knowledge of craftsmanship and a good scientific and practical training in machines who can adapt himself to different trades. The recent resolution of the Trades Union Congress to organise by industries and not by crafts is a step in the right direction. The right way to limit apprentices is to require a thorough training for the apprentice, and part-time day education is the first step in that direction.

We cannot afford to let the employer continue to have complete control of the education of the apprentice. It should be vested in local committees representing the Education Authorities, the Employers and the Trades' Union Representatives, which should be invited to be voluntarily organised.

We have adopted voluntarily in Edinburgh part-time day education for all those connected with book production and the instruction given includes training in the craft, and general and art education. The attendance of all apprentices is now made compulsory by this trade.

It has been so successful that no one would now think of abandoning it, and it is controlled by a Committee of the kind I have described. In addition committees have been set up by the Merchant Company which control the education of the apprentice within as well as without the workshop. Take care of the apprentice and the craftsman will take care of himself; and here may I say in passing that I wish politicians would stop talking about equality of opportunity in Education and do something to establish it. As long as we define education on the narrow lines of a linguistic training modified

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by a study of abstract mathematics and abstract science, as long as we allow our Secondary Education to be confined to these narrow limits, and at the same time allow our Secondary Schools to establish a firmer and firmer monopoly in the Universities, we can have no equality of opportunity in this country. The whole tendency at present is to make the Universities more and more a monopoly of those who have received a middle-class education.

It is forgotten that when the Universities were established, training for the skilled Trades was already highly organised in the Guilds, and that the Universities, imitating the Guilds in their organisation, were established to supply an equally good training for the professions. They have continued and the old Guilds are gone. They must therefore widen their doors so as to include the artisan as well as the future schoolmaster, lawyer, clergyman and clerk. The recent proposals in connection with London University and Oxford and Cambridge are all in the direction of establishing more firmly the middle-class monopoly of University Education and the monopoly of the Secondary Schools, and emphasising the class distinction between the middle-class and the artisan.

The Education Act, which we owe to Mr Lloyd George and to Mr Fisher establishing the principle of part-time education for young people between the ages of fourteen and eighteen was welcomed by all of us engaged in the education of the apprentice and the workman. It requires to be applied industry by industry, not district by district, each industry being given a certain time to organise. Successive chiefs of the English Education Department have, I believe, said they do not believe in it. I can compel conviction in an hour if they will come and study our scheme for the education of Printers' apprentices in Edinburgh. They seem to me to have no ideas on Education beyond picking up

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clever little boys and girls out of the working-class and by means of bursaries and secondary schools lifting them out of the working-class into the middle-class haven. This is called equality of opportunity. As long as lawyers, doctors, divines, accountants and schoolmasters are properly trained for their job, the man of the pick and the shovel, the saw and the hammer, can go hang. He, the one really necessary person on whom we depend for our daily bread, who if he is not efficient brings down our whole trade and commerce with a smash, is not worth the trouble of teaching properly his job. Our employment problem is not a sudden bolt from the blue. We have been preparing for it for years, because while industry has been getting more flexible, more scientific and more highly organised, we have left the man at the bench to muddle along with what he could pick up from an employer too busy to teach him, and attendance after a hard day's work at an evening class. I confess I had great hopes of the Labour Party in this matter of education. What is wrong with them is that they are so hopelessly middle-class. I offer to the Unionist Party a new free field in education, a virgin soil which has hardly been scratched, the education on broad scientific and artistic as well as vocational lines of our industrial population for the job they must do efficiently for their own sakes and ours. The way the British workman has held his own against the competition of the outside world in spite of the neglect of successive Governments is marvellous, but the pace is getting too fast, and he has the same right as anyone else to have the opportunity of learning his job properly.

Over a million young people in Great Britain are attending evening classes every year. This, almost unnoticed, has been the most remarkable educational development of the last twenty years. They are not compelled to go by parent or education officer. Our Universities are filled because a degree is made the door of entrance

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to certain professions. The evening student is there in the hope of improving his knowledge in this or that direction—a voluntary seeker.

Wonderful, but is it fair that after a hard day's work he should have to turn out to classes night after night? Is it fair that when he has proved himself by years of strenuous study and is anxious to go to a University that there should be no adequate scholarships to take him there, and the University door should be shut in his face because he has not been to a Secondary School? The specialised lines of the entrance examination practically comes to that; and now it is proposed that an entrance examination to suit the Secondary Schools is to be made necessary for the first time in their history for entrance to Oxford and Cambridge, and the External London University Degree is to be abolished.

I am tired of hearing attacks on vocational education. The education in our Secondary Schools and University is Vocational. Vocational education is the only kind of education a student puts his back into. He is not inspired by dreams of Culture; but I must apologise, I am running away on my favourite hobby.

To return to our subject, by adopting such plans the pressure on the Labour Market would be at any rate temporarily relieved. Such plans, however, while immediately requiring to be adopted, do not go to the root of the matter. We may have to face a permanent condition of unemployment in this country, having reached the limit of our Industrial Expansion.

EMPIRE KNOWLEDGE.

The time has arrived when we have to seriously devote our attention to migration from this crowded Island to the other parts of the Empire.

The cry of the Dominions to-day is for juvenile emigrants. Australia, New Zealand, and Canada are asking

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for them in increasing numbers, and in spite of the efforts of voluntary organisations like the Church Army and the Salvation Army, not ten per cent. of the demand is being supplied. That the Dominions are in earnest in this matter is shown not only by the efforts of their respective Governments but by the excellent voluntary association in which the Churches are assisting, which receive and look after the young emigrant. Not only can he go out free of cost, but everything is done to look after him on the other side.

The experience of our juvenile employment bureau in Edinburgh is that the boys and young men, though unable to find employment, refuse to emigrate. The problem, therefore, before us, is to stimulate the desire for emigration among our town boys. One reason why they will not go is ignorance, and for this our schools are responsible. In the first place, whatever else may be taught in the Geography class-room the Geography of the Empire should be taught.

FARM SCHOOLS.

We require not only to interest the children in the Empire, but also to interest them in the land. All our education at present is a city education, either commercial or industrial in type. There is no outlook beyond the city walls. The child's eyes are directed inwards, not outwards. He is a pure city product. Boys and girls on leaving school should be given the opportunity of residence on a farm for three months with a view to preparation for emigration.

There are many boys who are fit for emigration without preliminary testing, but others should be put through the test of country life first. We have one such farm in Scotland and there are others in England. The farm in Scotland is the Craigelinn Boys' Farm near Paisley, whose president and moving spirit is Dr Cossar of Glasgow. The farm covers thirty-six acres of land for

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residential and training purposes. All the work of the farm is done by the lads under training. Most of the boys come from the cities and large towns, and quite a number were stranded and destitute. Dr Cossar finds (and he is dealing with the Glasgow slum boy, the most hopeless type), that forty per cent. of the boys made good, and he sends them to Canada and other Dominions where they do well. The farm was opened in September, 1922, and up to the end of October, 1923, nearly 200 boys had undergone training, accommodation being found for twenty-five boys at a time. The cost of running the farm for the first year was £2500 so that the cost per boy is approximately £12 10s. and half of this expense could be met by the Overseas Department.

It is also necessary to establish the closest liaison between the voluntary organisations overseas and the Churches and Schools in this country. Correspondence between the young settlers overseas and their former schools should be encouraged.

We have reached a crisis in our history when we have a choice between peopling out Empire or sinking lower and lower, producing a degraded city-bred people, crowded in our appalling industrial cities, living more and more on subsidies, while our vast Empire remains empty of men, to be ultimately conquered by some more energetic race. *Panes et circenses* brought the Roman Empire to ruin, and we are fast running in the same direction. In conclusion, may I say that I do not think that we as a community have yet fully realised our responsibility to the rising generation.

In the animal kingdom the parents teach their young all that it is necessary for them to know, and in a simple state of society the education of the young can equally be adequately fulfilled by the parents, but in our complex civilisation the parent, however willing, is to a great extent helpless, and the community has upon it the burden of a heavy responsibility. The most terrible denunciation

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from Mount Sinai, "For I the Lord thy God am a jealous God, visiting the sins of the fathers upon the children unto the third and fourth generations," contains a profound truth.

Of each generation it is true, "In the morning it is green and groweth up; but in the evening it is cut down, dried up and withered," "and their days are as it were a span long." Each generation has one supreme and absorbing duty to the generation which follows them. They will be judged not by the extent to which they have attended to their own comfort, "For man walketh in a vain shadow, and disquieteth himself in vain; he heapeth up riches and cannot tell who shall gather them." The Church in the Sacrament of Baptism has required of us, the present generation, that we, the fathers and mothers of every child born within our land, become the sureties for every child until he becomes of age, and it is on the extent to which we have fulfilled that pledge that we shall be judged. The call on each generation is to prepare the way of the Lord for those who follow.

Address by Professor GEORG KERSCHENSTEINER,
Munich University. Privy Councillor, Senator
of the German Academy, etc.

Professor KERSCHENSTEINER : Throughout the civilised world of our day, we are experiencing a democratic movement actuated by the will to self-government. Self-government in a nation, however, requires that its citizens should adopt a moral standpoint. Each one of them must be able to act for his own true good, before he can serve the true welfare of his community. This maxim has, it is true, become the common property of democratic nations, but the measures so far taken to carry it out, either in the Old World or in the New, are quite out of proportion to the greatness of the task. The old German Empire was the first state to work out to some extent the consequences of the franchise which Bismarck had

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conceded to the German people in his constitution of eighteen seventy one. Soon after, the constituent countries of the Empire by educational acts, as well as many towns through bye-laws, established schools for youth and girls of from fourteen to eighteen years of age. The elementary school in Germany, only covering a period of eight years, had been found inadequate to the new tasks and duties.

The first endeavours, however, were not successful. The cause of their failure, as it was fully recognised twenty years later, was that, essentially, these Continuation Schools were nothing but a temporal and material extension of the Elementary Schools. The fact that an adolescent—in contradistinction to a child—generally shows a definite type of mental structure, had been overlooked. Educationists had not realised the necessity of considering this mental structure, that is to say, the framework of aims and the trend of the interest arising therefrom, for any educational influence to take effect upon adults or adolescents. They had not summoned up the courage to demand that lessons take place during the youths' working-hours, instead of in the evening, when teachers and pupils are tired by the day's work.

When in eighteen ninety five I was called upon to superintend the schools of Munich, I soon apprehended these defects and resolved to make every effort to change the Continuation Schools into genuine educational institutions. After close upon eight years' organising, the essentials of my plans were realised. The lead taken by Munich was followed not only by many German towns, in which similar "Berufsschulen" were organised, but also by Scotland, England, Sweden, and the United States. Several of the United States have, as I am very pleased to know, gone far beyond the modest example set by Munich. The educational authorities in the State of Wisconsin, for instance, have proceeded to establish

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Public Vocational Day-Schools, attendance at which is compulsory. If this principle were universally carried out on the basis of an eight years' attendance at an elementary school, this would mean the realisation of a suggestion I gave long ago, namely, that every state should enact a law for the compulsory training in some skilled work or other, of all youths below eighteen years of age. I can only mention in passing the vocational day-schools with voluntary attendance, which are found in nearly all countries and particularly well developed in France. Excellent as they may be for small groups of youths, their importance for the great democratic problem of the education of adolescents in general is negligible.

A third kind of channel for educational influence upon adolescents has been early evolved in Germany. These, the Private Guild Schools and the somewhat later Private Factory Schools are organised by an employer or by a corporation of employers for their apprentices. In the United States, as well as in Germany, we find schools of this type well meriting our attention, in connection with the public educational institutions of towns.

Each of these three forms may give real educational opportunities, or may fail to do so; this depends on the aim in view and on the spirit in which it is carried out. The aim should be not only to make of the youth a skilled worker, but to educate the whole of his individual personality through his work. The man must not be swallowed up in the worker. This means that the curriculum of the school must be made up not merely with a view to the youth's profession as a worker, but also with a view to his citizenship. That is why in organising and superintending such schools, we must not aim only at instruction and development of manual skill, but, moreover, at cultivating social consciousness by means of suitable work-communities. How this can be done I have shown in several of my writings, notably in my

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book "Begriff der Arbeitsschulen" which has been translated into seventeen languages (the English version follows one of the earliest editions).

Under the present circumstances the most important form of Adolescent Education in democracy is the Public Continuation School, as it alone embraces the *entire* youth of a nation and influences their education. But in organising Continuation Schools we have to deal with many difficulties, lying partly in the mentality of the employers, and partly in the type of mind of the individual youth. The mental structure of the adolescent is no longer as plastic as was that of the child. He already has a more or less established framework of aims, and is therefore especially interested in the means fitted to attain these aims. From this point of view, we may distinguish four groups of adolescents, *viz.* :—

(1) Those who have already found a proper calling, for which they are fitted and in which they are interested; and those who, not yet being employed, are seeking after an employment in accord with their fitness and interest.

(2) Those who are still self-centred, but employed in a profession, interest in which can be roused by an appeal to their self-centred personality.

(3) Those employed in occupations for which men cannot experience a vocation, *e.g.*, unskilled workers, day labourers, errand boys, lift-boys, etc.

(4) Those who are neither employed nor interested in any kind of *work*, yet have other interests.

The difficulty of efficient organisation of educational facilities increases in the order of these groups.

The following may serve as guiding principles for organising Adolescent Education :—

(i.) When dealing with youths occupied in work for which they can feel a vocation, centre the educational arrangements round this work.

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- (ii.) See to it that the scope of the educational arrangements is not limited to this particular kind of work, but that the pupil's interest in his work is widened so far as to embrace activities of social significance, *i.e.*, see to it that the man is not swallowed up in the worker.
- (iii.) As soon as possible, organise the educational institution to be an active community controlled by common social values and aims.
- (iv.) Where the adolescent's occupation is of a kind that no man can have a vocation for, let the education be based on social, aesthetic or religious interest, whichever may be present in the youth, and make any of these the source of development in his mind.
- (v.) In the last case, that of the fourth group, only a personality sacrificing itself in love can help to educate them.
- (vi.) The way to manhood lies through citizenship.

These six norms allow complete freedom for the development of public adolescent schools. Regard must be had to them even by the most out-and-out school reformers, wherever there are no special institutions which render them superfluous. If, for example, it were possible to realise the programme worked out by the German Radical Reformers under the leadership of Professor Paul Oesterreich, the third and fourth groups of adolescents would cease to exist, as in reformed schools of this kind, all adolescents would be educated in some definite skilled work up to their eighteenth year. In this sense, I should welcome a gradual reform of educational arrangements. On the other hand, the radical reforms as introduced into adolescent education by the Soviets in Russia will, for all the good they may contain, never give a satisfactory solution of our problem. For their origin lies not in the liberal spirit of culture—which is a democratic spirit—but rather in the despotic spirit of

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the dictatorship of one class and one view of life only. Culture, however, implies the liberty of every moral personality and of every moral view of life.

Dr THOMAS DE LA BARRA, Chile: I want to start as my distinguished colleague from Germany did by asking your indulgence for my broken English. I want to tell you some of the experiences of a new country where we have tested all the systems of all the different Nationalities. I can tell you something about adolescent education, because I started in this work when I was just a student. My predecessors have told you a lot about the day continuation classes. I have followed with the greatest interest the working of this system in this country for many years. I have also followed the evening schools work and I have some experience in the evening schools too. But I do not think that those points are the principal points in adolescent education. My experience is that we may follow a different way more surely and more effectively. I want to refer to the Sunday Schools.

I do not know if among those present here there are some Americans—I mean to say, from the United States of America—well, of course, I am an American too—(laughter)—but they will tell you how the Sunday Schools work there. When I was just a boy I was very deeply impressed with a talk with a Chilian gentleman who went to see the President of the United States of America, Mr Cleveland. He was the first citizen of the United States. He was a teacher in a Sunday School. I know a little about evening schools in this country and in my own country. In this country they deal more than anything else with foreign languages, typewriting or shorthand or different subjects just to improve a little in the daily work, but you cannot give a general education in the evening schools with tired teachers and with very tired students. (Applause.) I have had twenty-six years of evening school work and I can assure you that it is

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absolutely necessary to have a very big enthusiasm among teachers and bigger enthusiasm among the students to take advantage of the evening schools.

The point to me is this : we want to raise the education of our workers who never get to the secondary schools and universities and we must teach them in Sunday Schools where they will go as teachers from the first citizen of the country to the common people, not only the boys of fourteen to sixteen and eighteen but all the workers who want to know not only their rights but their duties as citizens. We should work in some easy way in those hours when our religious duties allow us to work. A small conference of fifteen to twenty minutes, no more; some amusement and some music. Well, of course, it is a little difficult. (Laughter.) If you want to keep all the customs of the country, you will have some religious music, if you like, but you must always have education moulded in some amusement to attract the workers to the schools. It is absolutely necessary.

I do not like to touch any old custom in this country which I admire very much, but I think some day you will find, as we have found in the new countries, that for the adolescent education it is absolutely necessary to have Sunday Schools not only for the religious instruction of the small boys, but for the whole working class as they have in the United States of America just now and as we have in Chile. (Applause.) I can assure you that Sunday Schools are not so difficult as they seem to be. Of course, for that purpose I cannot advise any Government effort, but private enterprise. I saw in Great Britain the work of an institution that was very interesting called the Workers' Education Association. (Applause.) They are connecting now the work of the University Professors with the workers and raising the standard of education among the working classes.

Mr WILLIAM RAMSAY, Edinburgh: I am very much

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delighted to have been asked to say even a word after these mighty men who have gone before. We have had Sir Robert Blair who so magnificently guided the educational affairs of the City of London, Principal Laurie with his wisdom, and my friend the pioneer of a great deal of our technical work in evening schools. Any little message I have to give is along the lines of experience. Like my friend from Chile, my interest in the adolescent did not begin when I was thirty or forty, but when I was comparatively an adolescent myself, and to my mind, there is no subject so important as the one around which our thoughts have been gathered to-day.

Between fourteen and twenty the Nation is made. Between fourteen and twenty it is salvation or destruction of our youth. So I rejoice that this great Congress has come to Edinburgh and settled down amongst us and helped the Edinburgh folks still further to solve all their educational problems. Glasgow or the United States or Germany cannot take from us that at a very early stage we realised that the school was the all-important thing, next to religion, in the Nation's life, and the real Mecca of the Nation's education is in yon old house jutting out in the High Street of Edinburgh where lived that great soul who built for us that educational ladder in his great book on Discipline; I mean, John Knox.
(Applause.)

For the last ten years or so I have been very specially interested in Edinburgh's continuation schools. We have been fairly successful. We do not like compulsion very much in Scotland. Not twenty per cent. here, but seventy per cent. at least of the young people who leave the day school turn in to voluntary continuation classes. I will give you the secret of success. We have created a public conscience that is making more and more towards the ideal that a lad, if he is to be successful, must continue his education.

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On the other hand, we have reached the home, and every year it is easier for us, for the folks that are in the homes to-day are the folks that were in the continuation classes yesterday. I know some of the employers are bad, but I know some are exceedingly good, and there is a public opinion growing up among the masses that if they are wise they will see to it that they give all the backing they possibly can to the further education of their young people.

If we could get a certificate on the one hand, and we are getting it, for instance, on the commercial side of our continuation class work—we shall make a big stride there—not marked by the Education Authority, but by a joint body in the City, and if these certificates were of such a nature that an employer of labour would give a preference to the lads and lasses who have been spending their time in the continuation classes, then a great deal of difficulty in getting the young people into continuation classes would have gone.

The real thing among us is not a question so much of power to compel your neighbour but a question of goodwill and good fellowship. I hold that the continuation schools are not only a means to the education of our country, but a great moral and spiritual force in the Community. This movement, therefore, for the continued education of our young people lies at the very root of our Nation's future. These figures of Sir Robert Blair of that great army of young people who are starting life so tremendously handicapped are appalling. If the Nation would only sit down and think what it means to those tens of thousands of young people who will never have a chance, we should find some way out of the difficulty and help to save the Nation's greatest asset—namely, its youth. (Applause.)

Madame MICHELET, Norway: I am sure you all feel,

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it has been a great occasion at this time to hear Professor Kerschensteiner. I want to thank him not only for what he has said but for what he has done. I want to speak on one special point. Just now it was said that between the ages of fourteen and sixteen the Nation was being formed. Well, in those years all those women are being formed who are going to be the mothers of the next generation. We know that all these little girls who are growing up and going through these schools—or not going through them—are the mothers of the coming generation. It is my special work in my own home to work for the mothers, for the housewives, for the organisation of these people who go into a vocation of such tremendous responsibility without perhaps ever having heard in their lives what it meant.

It is well enough when we get a continuation school for adolescents to have all the intellectual points and all the vocational points brought before us, but there is here one side of human life that must be taken up with a much stronger understanding of the necessity of it, and that is the training of the mind of the young women towards their motherhood. (Applause.) I am not here to tell you how that ought to be done, but I want to ask all of you, and especially the leaders of this wonderful work in adolescence to know that these years when they have these young girls in their hands is the time when they are training the coming mothers of the country, and this is such an important thing that it cannot be said strongly enough that we are sending out into the world all this army of young women, many of whom perhaps know a little vocational work but who perhaps know nothing of what it means about their choice of a man.

They are forming a new generation of people that takes both sides, husbands and wives' sides, up into their lives. The understanding of this side of life is a thing

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that has to be taken up with the greatest earnestness in life if we are going to look forward to a generation that will be better than ourselves. (Applause.)

Miss MARJORIE GULLAN, Glasgow : May I first of all as a delegate from the New Education Fellowship tell you that in the "New Era," there is a most interesting list of progressive and experimental schools, in which a great many of you may be interested. I simply want to speak about verse speaking choirs for the adolescent. I do realise that so much is being done in so many ways that we ought to provide for the adolescent, and we are trying this choral speaking for the adolescent in order that it may make another outlet for the boy and girl, and I am glad to say it is proving very successful.

First of all, they are delighted if you give them anything in the way of a good ballad with a refrain. We begin with a ballad such as "Hind Horn." Generally they had no rhythm. We want to give them robust poetry. They have done a great deal of introspective work from the printed page of poetry, but they have hardly spoken it. They will all do it if they have to speak it together. You go on from that and take something which they can do all together. You take something rousing like "Lord Randolph," a question and answer. Then you go on and take some Shakespeare songs and give them the idea of the beat, and you get them conducted all together. Now you find that speech is very much helped when you have a great many people speaking together, because they become aware that they must make themselves articulate.

They become aware that the tone must be better when a great many are speaking together. All sorts of things can be done with community speech. You can go almost any length in ballads. You can give them "Drake's Drum." We are trying to do it with Girls' Guildries and Girl Scouts and with the unemployed boys and

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girls, and we are finding that just as music gives them a tremendous outlet, so community speaking of their rhythmic passages and community speaking of refrains to which they can dance and do robust dancing, and especially the speaking and dancing together, is a great help towards their expression. (Applause.)

Mr W. G. COVE, M.P.: I rather think that the two gentlemen who spoke who had their origin in Scotland were at certain points of their speech being intentionally provocative. I do not think that Sir Robert Blair is really antagonistic to raising the school age, and I can assure him that we on our side who believe in the raising of the school age also believe that there comes a point when the continuation school ought to be in existence. I believe Principal Laurie said something about the professions having a vocational training. Yes, but at what age and after what process? (Applause.) After a broad general liberal education. The problem of the adolescent is the problem essentially in a modern industrial democracy of securing for our children that broad general liberal education and not merely as a personal right of the child but as an economic necessity of modern industrialism. (Applause.)

Principal Laurie harked back to the old Guild days and the apprenticeship system. I wish we had really discussed these problems this afternoon, because they are of vital importance. I think a glorious opportunity has been wasted, if I may say so. I want to say this word, that you cannot hark back to the old Guild days, to the old system of apprenticeship, because modern industry demands less skilled work than ever it did in your mass production. That is a point I wish we had time to discuss. Every Commission that has been set up in this country—and two have been set up since the War—take the Report of the Ministry of Reconstruction—states that as far as England is concerned, the system

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of apprenticeship begins nearer sixteen than it does fourteen, and even where you want a system of apprenticeship, if it begins nearer sixteen than it does fourteen, then your business is to see that the children are in school until that age. (Applause.)

In the second place, the continuation system does not meet those great numbers of unemployed. The tragedy in England is that we do not know how many there are. Take the boot industry; there was a time when the man made the whole boot. Does he make one-hundredth of it to-day? It is split up into a hundred and one minute different occupations, and the machine has come and done the skilled work that used to be done by the fingers and hands of men.

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Summary of Proceedings, by the Secretary, Mr
J. EWING, Edinburgh.

The Adult Education Group met at 2.30 p.m. on Tuesday, 21st July 1925, in the Free Assembly Hall, where Sir Michael Sadler, Master of University College, Oxford, presided over an audience of approximately three hundred delegates. The Chairman opened the proceedings by an address in which he summarised the distinctive contributions made by the different nations to the culture of the world. Professor N. Kemp Smith defined the meaning of Adult Education and suggested that more public aid should be given than had hitherto been done to those members of trades and professions who were anxious to acquire instruction on a University standard. Colonel Mitchell, O.B.E., Secretary of the Carnegie United Kingdom Trust, made several suggestions as to how more effective liaison could be made between Education and Public Library Authorities. Other speakers who took part in the discussion were Mr Sterling Craig, Edinburgh; Professor P. J. Hartog, of the University of Dacca; Mr Alexander Szörenyi of Budapest; Mr S. Satyamurti of Madras; and Dr H. N. MacCracken, President of the Vassar College, New York State.

In closing the discussion Sir Michael Sadler emphasised the value of the tutorial class as an instrument of adult education.

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Tuesday, 21st July.

CHAIRMAN: Sir MICHAEL SADLER, University College, Oxford.

THE CHAIRMAN: I wish to say a few words in reference to our subject. The study of Adult Education helps us to appreciate the fine characteristics of each national culture and the contribution which each national culture can make to the welfare of the world. For example, Scottish life, lowland or highland, is one of the classic lands of adult education. The Scots have heightened their intellectual energy by the discussion of fundamental things in faith, in philosophy and in government, and by their love of books, of national history and of poetry, they have made a culture which is a great social tradition—(applause)—and it is through the study of a social tradition that we see the significance of what is done for adult education. And, moreover, by travel—a very important part of adult education—and by their knowledge of the world overseas the Scots have increased their extraordinary power of adjusting themselves to the mentality of other people. (Applause.)

May I take another illustration. France cares intensely for the intellectual and emotional unity of her people. In that unity are many traditions. The French have found that one supreme instrument in adult education is an exquisite use of the mother tongue. (Hear, hear.) The mother tongue so used is a means of promoting a sense of true social equality; and, more than that, it diffuses the power of entering quickly into the significance of formulated general ideas. And, I think, as we throw our minds more widely over the world at this stage, we see how in many countries, in some parts of many countries especially, the study and the use of the vernacular, of the mother tongue, its apt, skilful, intelligent use is one of the fundamental basic questions of adult education, for really it is through the mother tongue that we enter into our first knowledge of things

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deepest and most profound. And therefore not disconnected with our subject this afternoon are the study of bi-lingualism and the encouragement of the old vernacular in many countries, and indeed in many parts of Scotland an encouragement which has not simply to be philanthropic and still less patronising, but an encouragement which is intellectual and profound.

Then from Denmark we have learned how a homely simple humanism and experience of corporate life may strengthen the adult education of an intelligent people. Germany, which has preserved in many of her cities the Guild tradition of the Middle Ages, has used that Guild tradition in order to prepare the younger generation for a more intelligent understanding of industrial and commercial citizenship; and Germany also has learned the immense power of music in the culture of the people. (Applause.)

Switzerland, which has a national unity based on Cantonal loyalty, has been perhaps one of the foremost in showing to the world how physical training, used rhythmically and artistically, may become through Cantonal pride a real source of national unity and culture. Two days ago I saw in Geneva files of young men, the flower of the country, defiling in a great cortège through the streets of Geneva, 20,000 of them, bearing banners from every town and many of the villages of Switzerland, symbolising education through physical training, and with an artistic pleasure in the beauty of the thing done and with a very noble ethical sense of the unity of the country.

And what can I generalise about the United States, still less about the great overseas world in which the United States and Canada are one? They have led the world in organising the public library service on an educational pattern for modern needs in adult education. They from the time of Emerson and before have shown us the power of the public lecture, the holding of the

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summer school and of the conference, great things to have done for an ideal of adult education.

And Wales through her intimate knowledge of the Welsh Bible, through her sense of legend and history, through her love of vocal music, has preserved and has re-vitalised a national culture which is most characteristic and which culminates in the Eisteddfods. England, which for centuries has had experience in self-government in groups, large and small, and which has a varied though not yet a unified culture, has done great things for adult education and never more than at this hour, especially in the study of science, of natural history, and of problems of government and of economic organisation.

One might carry these illustrations round the whole world. Thus Europe and the West, and India too, which has a great wealth of adult education, in her ancient philosophy, in her legends, and not least in the methods and discussions of her village self-government. China, the classical land of literary education, before which we in the West are modern, is now, I understand, attacking the problem, beginning to adventure herself into the sphere of adult education, in the modern sense, through attacking the problem of illiteracy by the selection of written characters and of a more limited vocabulary. And so all over the world, East and West, our eyes are being opened to the needs of adult education. We see how each land has it within its power to make to the common stock its characteristic contribution out of the great national culture.

Adult education I suggest to you is one of the spheres in which the State can best help in developing culture and mental elevation which lies behind it by respecting independent initiative, whether of individuals or of groups. And because adult education lies on the fringe of State organisation, it is peculiarly fitted to be helped and to profit by benefactions from great funds like the

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Carnegie and the Rockefeller Trust, which encourage variety by giving continuity and precision to the work of individuals or of groups.

On the artistic side I submit to you in conclusion, a side year by year growing in significance and value—in music, in the drama, and in rhythmic physical exercises—there is still much leeway to be made up in adult education in those countries in which, for the sake of moral reformation, this side of life was once sternly curtailed.

On the intellectual side perhaps the greatest need of adult education, in our country at any rate, is improved library facilities, facilities made educational by all the skill which those trained in the arts of teaching and helping can give, library facilities available for the individual student and for the group student, not only in the town but in the country, to enable him not only to get what indeed the United States and Canada have shown us the way in getting, access to good works of reference on all subjects, but to give also to the individual student or the group student the means of having in their possession for a sufficiently long time together, and when wanted, the kind of books without which you cannot in these days make any living study of any great subject.

But both on the artistic side and on the intellectual side of adult education we need, as we have always needed, the personality of leaders, people with the gift of teaching, people above all things who know that because they have knowledge it is part of their privilege to hand on knowledge, and who in sharing knowledge with others, and in helping others to understand, find that they themselves add to their knowledge and understand more vividly than ever they understood before. Now, I have the pleasure of calling upon Professor NORMAN KEMP SMITH and of asking him to open our discussion this afternoon.

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Address by Professor N. KEMP SMITH, University of Edinburgh.

Professor KEMP SMITH: The reason, I presume, why I have been asked to open this discussion is the office which I have been privileged to hold for some years, as President of the Edinburgh Branch of the Workers Educational Association. There are, however, many here present who are much better qualified to contribute to the discussion; and what I have to say will at least, I trust, have the one great merit that it will be said with becoming brevity, and by its very incompleteness will arouse others to make good its shortcomings.

The phrase "Adult Education" is one that calls for a word of comment. School education is a preparation for adult life. University education is a continuation of such preparation for a favoured few, though now happily for an ever-increasing proportion of the community, and for women as well as for men. The Universities also give the required preparation and equipment for the learned professions. All such education, however, in the normal course, ends with early youth. Any young man, possessing say private means, who proposed to continue residence at a University indefinitely, with a view to extending the range of his studies into new subjects, would be discouraged from so doing by his senior advisers. They would point out that he has reached the age when the responsibilities of life cannot be evaded, and when he must justify the long and expensive preparation which he has received in School and University by putting it to use in the service of the community. They would also point out that this is not by any means an evil necessity, not a sacrifice which he is called upon to make for the sake of others; but one that is indispensable for his own further intellectual and moral development. There comes a time, or at least if the development has been healthy and normal there

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ought to come a time, and that not too long deferred, when the individual should feel that he can no longer maintain a receptive and an imitative attitude—a time when he feels that if he is to continue any longer in the University it must be as one of the teachers, not as one of the taught, and that he must justify himself to himself, not merely by what he continues to learn, but primarily by what he is able to do, either in extending the frontiers of his subject or by testing it to others.

This is no less obviously true of school life. We are engaged in the good fight for extending the school age for all children from fourteen to sixteen; but this need not prevent us from recognising that there comes a time when, even if ways and means were available, and however good be the schools, any further extension of the school period becomes positively harmful. The age at which this happens varies with the individual; it comes later for those who have the interests and aptitudes that lead them into the University; but it comes sooner or later, and, as educationalists seem to agree, for the larger proportion of children about sixteen years of age. It is then imperative that they incur new responsibilities and continue their education in and through some industry, manual trade or other occupation.

Well, that being the situation, what do we mean by adult education? This question is not, I think, to be met simply by saying that education is very much more than merely a preparation for adult life, that it is an end in itself and a life-long process. Nor is it to be met by saying that there is no such thing as living upon intellectual capital, and that when we cease to learn we have already begun to fall behind our own past selves. Adults can best continue their education in two ways: first, in connection with their life-work, through the problems which it sets, and through the manifold contacts with their fellows that arise out of its daily tasks

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and duties; and secondly, as regards the wider interests which every healthy minded individual ought to possess, through books and the daily papers, through his Church, political and Trade Union connections, and the like. We do not expect the busy lawyer or doctor to spend his evenings in attending classes, why then should we expect it of those who are no less busily occupied in trade and industry, in the Civil Services and in the teaching profession? The pressure of life is very considerable in all of these and the leisure hours are needed for recreation, or for a change of work not too strenuous in character. If we expect work of a University or even of a Secondary School type to be done by people who have already put in a full day's work, are we not asking for more than we should ever dream of asking from pupils in the Secondary Schools or from students in the Universities? The complaint is sometimes heard that no matter what facilities be offered, the manual workers do not avail themselves of them in sufficient numbers. But is not the explanation obvious? The fatigue consequent upon a full day's manual labour makes the diverting of energy into intellectual studies no easy matter. Are we not asking the impossible; and ought we not rather to be influenced by the fact that, these considerations notwithstanding, so many artisans show that they feel the need, and are willing to make astonishing sacrifices in order to secure, more general education than they have received in their school years?

What, then, do we mean by adult education? To whom and with what ends in view, should it be given? These questions will, I think, be answered, if we say that mainly it is education for those who have not had the opportunities of a University training but who in the course of their daily vocations have come to feel the need, or who can be brought to feel the need, for such special training as only the Universities, and those who have passed through them, are in a position to

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supply. Otherwise our use of the phrase "Adult Education" becomes quite indefinite, covering all the many benefits, in the way of moral and intellectual development, which we are bound to obtain through participation in any kind of association with our fellows.

Facilities for adult higher education will be taken advantage of by those who, as a special interest, have given themselves to the study of literature or of some science, and it is well worth while that each need should be catered for, especially in the larger centres where such individuals are to be found in sufficient number to make possible the organisation of classes. How large a number welcome such facilities has been demonstrated in Edinburgh—some 1500 adults being in regular attendance upon the twenty-three evening courses organised by the Workers Educational Association. Much might be said about this aspect of adult education, and of the need for more extended facilities than are yet provided. The extraordinary success of the Musical Festivals shows how rich a harvest awaits those who have the genius to devise new methods for the popularisation of the arts and humanities. And if I say no more on this and kindred matters, it is not because of any desire to minimise their importance, but because I believe that the most immediate and pressing need of adult education at the present time, its main province and the sufficing justification for our insistence upon its provision, is to be found elsewhere, in the more or less professional training—analogous in some degree to the training of the lawyer or doctor—that is required by those who are called upon to shoulder the duties of leadership in industry, in the Municipal and Civil Services, and not least in the Trade Unions.

Even if it be the case that for the bulk of the population school education must cease at about sixteen years of age, that may not be taken as meaning that they are unfitted for, or should not later have the opportunities

of more advanced study. We know how accidental in many cases are the circumstances which determine whether a young person will or will not proceed to the University; and as a matter of fact a considerable percentage of those who pass directly from school into active life very soon come to appreciate the need of such higher training in meeting the opportunities and responsibilities of the careers which they have adopted. And when educational facilities are opened to them they show a keenness of interest and a singleness of mind which put to shame the rather tepid enthusiasms of the average University student who has not yet been matured by experience of the outside world and who is apt to take his advantage so much more for granted. We none of us probably believe very much in the distinction between vocational and non-vocational education save as a rough and useful method of classification. It is breaking down within the Universities themselves, which now cast their nets much more widely than in time past, through their Departments of Commerce and Schools of Social Study and Training. Is it not true to say that all education is vocational in character, or at least that ordinarily, in the vast majority of people, those interests are vocational that arise out of the occupations by which they earn their daily bread? When it is observed how largely political economy, industrial history, and the social sciences generally bulk in the classes organised for adults, a political bias is sometimes suspected in those responsible for them. But the prominence of such subjects is surely no cause for surprise, if it be for those engaged in the trades and industries that the classes are mainly designed. In any case, it is through study of such subjects, in which at starting they have an initial interest, that interest in general history and the more philosophical disciplines can best be aroused.

In 1923, in the annual Conference of the British Universities, a discussion was initiated by Sir Wm.

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Beveridge, the Principal of the London School of Economics, on the provision of University training for those engaged in Administrative and Municipal work. He had chiefly in view those engaged in the Civil Services; and what he advocated was the provision of University training for those who have not come direct from schools, but have already acquired through active service some practical experience of the problems of their life-work. What the Public Authorities should, he said, be called upon to do, is to give encouragement to the more energetic and capable to prosecute higher studies, not so much by any payment of their University fees, as by giving those who show special promise and aptitude a certain number of hours off for their studies. And he similarly called upon the Universities, on their part, to approach the Public Authorities in their districts, and also the Organisations representing the workers, for co-operation in the arrangements of the required courses. This discussion was followed by another discussion opened by Mr Arthur Greenwood, who urged—and surely his contention is just—that such training is no less imperatively demanded for those who, as administrators in the various Labour Organisations, are called upon to deal with problems quite as difficult and certainly no less important than those met with in the Civil and Municipal Services. "We regard it," he said, "as one of the duties of the Universities to do for those Organisations, the people who control them, and the people who taken an active interest in them, as much as the Universities have done in the past for the smaller governing class which preceded the establishment of democratic institutions in this country . . . providing their own ideals, and pursuing their various aspirations." Whether all here present do or do not agree with the precise wording of this statement, can anyone of us who believes in the liberating and disciplining power of education, do otherwise than most heartily applaud such programmes?

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The only question worthy of discussion is as to ways and means. That those in positions of leadership in the working class movements should as adults have free access to the knowledge and training which Universities can give, cannot but contribute to the good of the community as a whole. Sir Richard Lodge, speaking in the subsequent discussion, made the following important pronouncement of policy—a pronouncement too important to be allowed to be hidden in the official proceedings of the Conference. “The demand (I speak specially for Scotland) does require apostles to create it or to make it vocal and substantial, and I agree that that is largely the task of the working-class leaders and Trade Union officials. It is our duty in the Universities to meet it, and I believe its performance would enormously increase the usefulness and merit of the Universities themselves.”

Meantime the Workers Educational Association is engaged in this missionary work of eliciting and voicing the demand; and by co-operation with the Education Authorities and the Universities, it is also endeavouring to meet the demands thus aroused. And this brings me to a matter upon which I should like to say a few words before concluding—the part which such voluntary agencies as the Workers Educational Association seem called upon to play in the provision of Adult Education.

Recently there has been what surely is a somewhat alarming development of Summer Schools and even of Colleges instituted by the Political Parties. I am thinking of the Labour Colleges on the one hand and of such as Stott College on the other, and of the Conservative, Liberal and Labour Summer Schools. We may certainly rejoice that the Political Parties regard education as an essential part of their programmes and are endeavouring to provide educational opportunities for their members; and we need not question that what they thus provide is educational in character, or at the least that it is more

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systematic and thorough than any discussions to which otherwise those attending these schools would be likely to have access. But we may be sure that in all or nearly all cases those who are invited to teach share the convictions of the Party concerned, and that no one of their Schools would be organised were it not regarded as likely to draw recruits to the Party. Now if it be admitted that one main purpose of all education is to bring about a greater amount of mutual understanding, and so to aid in overcoming the suspicions, and mutual antagonisms which Party Spirit is only too apt to arouse, then surely we cannot regard with equanimity this tendency for the Political Parties thus increasingly to take over what is a firm intent and responsibility of the community as a whole. To cater for such needs should be the work of disinterested, non-partisan Organisations. Only so can people of different types and different views be brought together, and by participating in common work and common discussions, under teachers whose recognised duty it is not to indulge in propaganda, and who having adult hearers of all kinds before them, are less likely to yield to the temptation to do so. If, as I have contended, the main function of adult education is to provide, so far as may be practicable, University advantages to wider circles than have hitherto had access to them, then this supreme advantage of University life—the meeting and mingling together of people drawn from all classes and with every kind of outlook—should not be sacrificed.

For this reason, it might be thought that the solution of all difficulties would be for the Universities to take the initiative, and to organise the necessary courses much in the manner in which it does those for its regular student body. But, as experience has demonstrated, this seemingly easy and simple solution does not meet the needs of the situation. The Universities, by the very nature of the tasks which hitherto have mainly

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occupied them, and which must continue to be their primary work, are somewhat detached and aloof, and for the purposes of the required adult facilities voluntary agencies of every possible type, those of the Political Parties no less than those of Professional and Trade Unions must be called in, to mediate between the Universities and the public for which they are asked to cater. When an Organisation of the Workers Educational Association type takes over the duties of thus mediating between the Universities and the wider public, the greater the number of contacts, the greater the variety of the Bodies represented upon its Executive Council, the more efficiently will it meet the responsibilities which it undertakes. There will always, of course, be the danger that this or that Political Party will seek to capture such an Organisation for its own ends; but if by its Constitution it is pledged to be non-party and non-sectarian, there should always be enough alertness in public opinion and in the strictly Educational Bodies to ensure that this does not happen. Such an Organisation will have as its own work to formulate the educational needs of the adult community; and to present them to the Education Authorities and to the Universities. It will then be for the latter to secure that they are adequately met, under conditions which allow of the education being, what all education ought to be, a vivifying and not a divisive influence.

If I may recur to what I previously suggested, we can hardly expect hard intellectual study to be done, in a really satisfactory manner, in addition to the full day's work. This has recently been recognised, in a modest way, by the Railway Companies in arranging with the Universities in courses of study for their administrative employees. They allow them time off for attending the courses. What would be necessary, in the case of manual workers, would probably be leave for six weeks on three months at a time, to attend specially arranged

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courses. The existing evening courses, now provided in most of the larger centres and in a few country towns, form an excellent introduction to more advanced training, and can be used in discovering and selecting those of latent talent who are marked out for leadership and responsibility in the groups and Organisations to which they belong, and towards the expenses of whose further education the community can rightly be called upon to contribute. At the present time a very large amount of public money is being expended by the Education Authority in paying Bursaries to young people to enable them to attend the Universities. Public moneys could be expended with equal right, and often with yet better results, for those who, at a later stage, by self-sacrificing effort have shown their desire, and have proved their fitness, for benefiting by a period of University training.

In certain parts of England tutorial courses, extending over three years, for students who undertake to devote their evening leisure for the three years, doing special reading and the writing of papers, have given satisfactory results, at least in such subjects as political economy, industrial history, social institutions and the like, subjects which directly connect with questions that the students are constantly discussing with their fellows. In Scotland we have not yet been able to do more than arrange for single year courses that vary in their programmes and so can be attended with profit for more than one year. But even the three-year tutorial courses required to be supplemented by courses organised for those who, for however brief a period, can give their undiverted time and energy to systematic study. And to make this possible for the adult students, grants in aid will be required.

That is the adult education problem in what I take to be its most pressing and immediate form. But the subject is vast and complicated, and I trust that others

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will discuss it as it presents itself upon other lines of approach.

THE CHAIRMAN: I call upon Colonel MITCHELL, the Secretary of the Carnegie Trust, to speak on the subject now.

The Function of the Public Library in the Sphere of Adult Education.

Address by Lt.Col. J. M. MITCHELL, O.B.E., M.C.,
M.A., Secretary, Carnegie United Kingdom
Trust, Member Departmental Committee on
Public Libraries (England and Wales).

Col. MITCHELL: The growth of interest in the Public Library as an indispensable factor in Adult Education has been very remarkable during recent years. In America the Library Association has undertaken a special inquiry into the possibility of further development. In Great Britain, the Adult Education Committee appointed in 1923 by the President of the Board of Education set up a Sub-Committee to deal with the supply of books for students: the importance of the inquiry was soon seen to be so great that the President of the Board decided to set up a Departmental Committee on Public Libraries. On this Committee I have had the privilege of serving. I can, therefore, assure the Delegates that the Adult Education side of the problem is receiving the closest attention.

As Secretary of the Carnegie United Kingdom Trust I have abundant evidence both as to the wide demand for Adult Education, and also as to the urgency of closer relations between the Public Library and the Student.

Over the main entrance to the famous Public Library of the City of Boston, there runs the dignified legend:

*Erected by the Citizens of Boston for the
Advancement of Learning.*

When I saw this simple and yet impressive declara-

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tion of faith, I was startled by the thought that, in this country at all events, Education Authorities and Public Library Committees rarely work hand-in-hand, and the Library is in very few places treated as one of our chief educational assets. The tacit assumption is that Education has nothing to gain from Public Libraries, and that the Public Libraries cater for something which is no part of what we call Education.

In view of certain anxieties which are prevalent in this country and in America, let me make it quite clear that I am *not* proceeding to argue that Public Library provision should be transferred to Education Committees, or that the Public Library should take over the Education Committees' duties. Far from it. What I do want to emphasise is the urgent need for an explicit recognition of the plain duty which lies upon the two bodies to serve each other so far as they are on common ground, and definitely to supplement one another in their quite distinct functions. A policy of mutual ignorance, indifference, and even in some cases suspicion, is all too common, and it involves a grave loss to the public.

First let me speak of the term "Education." For many years in this country—perhaps specially in Scotland—this term has been far too largely used in its limited sense as applying only to organised teaching in schools, colleges and universities. Gradually, not only in general, but even in teaching institutions, it is being realised that organised teaching is only a preliminary to—a kind of scaffolding for—the real education which makes the efficient citizen, and which can be acquired only by the developing adult mind enriched by practical experience and wise reading.

Accordingly one of the prime lessons to be taught by the schoolmaster and the university professor is respect for books as the main storehouse and record of human achievement, the knowledge of how to use them, and where they can be obtained. In other words, even

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the child, whose formal education ends at fourteen, should be familiar with the Public Library; he should have it in the fibre of his mind that he is one of the owners of it, and that it is one of his proudest and most useful possessions, "erected by his fellow citizens for the Advancement of Learning."

I respectfully recognise the remarkable progress which has been achieved in this respect by a few of the progressive Libraries of this country, and far more generally by the Public Librarians of America, many of whom I had the great privilege of meeting recently during a six-weeks' lightning tour. But it is only the most progressive librarian who really knows best how much remains to be done on systematic business-like lines, before the Public Library will be giving its last ounce of value in the sphere of the wider education.

It is no part of my purpose, however, to limit myself to fine breezy generalisations which, though they may soothe the ear, most certainly "cut no ice." The questions for us are: (1) what ought to be done? (2) what does it cost? (3) who ought to do it? and (4) how soon can it be done?

I am limited in this paper to Adult Education. But it is necessary, in the first place, to remember not only that the child is the prospective adult, but also that the average adult is often little better than a "part-worn" child. Therefore it is the bounden duty of Education and Library Committees in every town and county to get together, and find a workable basis of co-operation. There is room for infinite diversity of practice, and we ought to be able to achieve, without any stereotyped or statutory system, the plain practical desideratum, namely, a nucleus library in every school, and a steady inculcation in the school of the habit of looking beyond the school shelves to the public library.

There is at present considerable controversy as to which of the two authorities should select and administer

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the libraries which are actually in the schools. In some cases the Education Committee does the whole thing, making no attempt to enlist the Public Librarian's services : in other cases the Library is paid so much by the Education Committee. In far too many cases neither party does anything at all. In all cases, there should be a joint policy, and it probably matters very little, if at all, what machinery is set up, provided the result is achieved.

In addition to the library in the schools, scholars from ten or eleven years onward should be introduced, generally or in classes, to the Municipal Library and Museum (if any). Thus, and thus only, shall we create a library-using public out of the ranks of adolescents.

What is the duty of the Public Library to the Adult Student whether isolated or in organised classes?

(1). In the first place, every possible elasticity should be practised, as in fact is the case in all our good libraries. Extra borrowing facilities are commonly allowed to students, even to the extent of lending from the Reference shelves. The pernicious habit of putting all expensive books on Reference shelves should be resolutely resisted; many men and women are too busy to study seriously except in the late evening and on Sunday. For them the Reference Department is largely a sealed room. How utterly absurd it is that, while we lend novels and light literature for home consumption, our best books are normally available to those only who can sit in a particular room to read them. I say boldly—as a challenge to those who are far more expert than I am—that there is nothing whatever but a transparent fallacy in the argument: “Oh, but readers have a right to expect these books on the shelves if they come to the library.” It is a sound argument about books which really are “Reference” books, *i.e.* books to which one refers—dictionaries, guide-books, catalogues, time-tables. But ninety per cent. of what we commonly lock

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up in the Reference Room are books which are for solid reading, not in any real sense for reference. Let us explode the Reference myth, and help the student.

(2). In the second place, the Public Library should prepare and exhibit prominently a complete list of all educational facilities in the district, whether publicly provided by Local Education and Health Committees, or run on the voluntary basis, *e.g.* Literary Societies, Music Schools, Arts and Crafts Classes, Cookery Classes.

(3). Thirdly, the Librarian should provide and circulate carefully selected subject lists of books in his collection, with quite short annotations, *e.g.*, "For beginners," "For University Graduates," etc. Newly-acquired books of importance should be exhibited for a week on a special table in the most prominent place, before disappearing on to the shelves.

(4). Fourthly, the Librarian's clear duty is to be on close terms of friendship with all teachers, exchanging advice as to the books which are of value to their various sets of students. There is no really valid objection to the making of special terms for classes, provided it is a definite understanding that the class teacher will at once return any book which is overdue on the usual loan-period, and is wanted by another reader. An adequate set of books might be loaned for class-purposes on this express condition, without doing the smallest injustice to the general public, and I think it would turn out that, in many cases, such books might remain at the tutor's disposal for two or three months without having to be re-called. At all events, the scheme would be so valuable to classes and reading circles that the experiment is well worth a trial.

(5). A fifth point is co-operation with social clubs, women's institutes, Young Men's Christian Associations, and Young Women's Christian Association huts, boys' and girls' clubs. Book-exhibits and book-talks in such groups should be a regular part of the public library's

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service. These are just the people who need sympathetic guidance, and it is a tragedy that so many are dependent on odd collections presented by donors who regard them much as our forefathers regarded convicts "who left their country for their country's good."

(6). Sixthly, Librarians should be on the look-out for lectures on special subjects which are to be given in such circles as Rotary Clubs, British Legion Branches, Literary Societies. It would be generally welcome to serious members of such audiences if the chairman or lecturer could say after the address: "Our Public Librarian tells me he has the following books on this subject, if anybody wants to pursue it further."

(7). Seventhly, where it is possible, room should be provided in the Public Library for students whose houses do not lend themselves to quiet study.

In conclusion may I urge upon the Conference the urgent importance of making the utmost of our library assets, under an elastic and liberal system of co-ordination? The Public Library, municipal and county, should be able to draw the more expensive books which only a few readers need from a central or national reserve. The Central Library for students is attempting to meet this need, but it must receive official recognition alongside the great National stationary collections. It is to be hoped also that this great lending library will gradually make inter-loan arrangements with all the important "special" libraries of learned societies—even perhaps to some extent with the University Libraries. Already this loan system is in operation in some cases, to the great advantage of the isolated student.

Finally, the County library must gradually be developed out of its present modest beginnings until there are in all our villages reading-rooms with nucleus stocks of standard works, refunded periodically with loan collections from the County headquarters, and supported in the last resort by the national lending reserve.

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DISCUSSION.

Dr P. J. HARTOG, C.I.E., Vice-Chancellor of Dacca University, India: I am going to speak not of books of permanent interest but of ephemeral interest for adult education at this moment, but still a very important subject, that of the newspaper. The newspaper is controversial. I agree with Professor Norman Kemp Smith that the teaching of adults should be entirely devoid of political bias, but at the same time anyone who has taught working men knows that the subjects in which they are most profoundly interested and justly interested are social and political questions that no one could regard otherwise than as controversial. I believe that such topics can be treated uncontroversially by the use of a special kind of method which I have tried myself. It appeared to me fitting that if I was going to make any progress with the students whom I wished to help I should not only allow them but encourage them to read leading articles intelligently. Now, the best way of making a working man understand what a leading article means is to tell him to make a summary of it, to reduce it to anything from a quarter to a sixth of its length, and still better, if two articles on the same topic have appeared in newspapers of the same date, to ask him to do that in respect of both articles and to make a comparison for himself. The criterion of judging such written work should not be whether in the opinion of the teacher the student has reached the right conclusions, but whether he has expressed his own views logically and clearly and in a way to satisfy his own individual conscience and himself. I left my students to form their own conclusion.

A student so trained becomes keen to detect mistakes of reasoning, whatever may be the original bias with which he has started, whatever may be his original point of view. He is trained in the art of independent think-

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ing, and the doctrine of the class and of the teacher in criticising the student under examination stimulates his own conscience in a way that nothing else can do. I believe that such training is the only effective way of conferring immunity on the masses against bad propaganda. There are right kinds of propaganda and there are wrong kinds of propaganda, and in regard to any particular question I think many of us would probably disagree; but I think we would all agree that a man should not be misled into holding opinions which his maturer judgment would reject if he had acquired the art of seeing clearly what they amount to. My own views are based upon experiments conducted over a period of two years, during which I abstained as far as I possibly could from imparting my own views on political or social questions to my class. I never attempted to influence them and it is only by such a self-denying ordinance that success can be obtained.

It may not be easy for a teacher who is an enthusiastic politician or an enthusiastic social reformer to exercise such self-denial. If that is the case, if he finds it impossible, he had better not attempt work of this kind, for I am convinced that it is the only way of giving the adult student that self-reliant and critical judgment necessary for the formation of sound and sober public opinion. The students should learn not to sit at the feet of their teachers, to use the Eastern expression, but to stand upright by themselves. I am quite aware that what I have said is of a general character. I should have been very glad to give an instance, if time had allowed, but I understand that I am strictly limited to five minutes.

Mr STERLING CRAIG, M.A., LL.B., S.S.C., Edinburgh Education Authority: I would like to take the advantage of this Conference to emphasise the importance of travel in education. Education consists in everlastingly staring at black marks on white paper and occasionally making

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more black marks on white paper. When it is stated in that cold way you disagree with it, but nine-tenths of the time that is spent on so-called education is just staring at black marks on white paper. The whole world is around us and never looked at. Travel was the first educator and is still the best educator. We have made tremendous advances in travel facilities. It is quick, it is cheap, it is competent, and that is the curse of it. The whole discipline of travel has been left out. You know the story of the man who was sent on a pilgrimage to walk with peas in his shoes. The motor car has abolished all the discipline of travel. Travel is no longer an education. It is a luxury. It is almost a vice. In the old days every monastery was a centre of travel. Churches were the centres of travel. You cannot live without travel. Why shouldn't the schools in every country be made the centres of travel? The school building is there unused at night. The caretaker is there and the cleaner is there. It would be quite possible for the Education Authorities at night to provide some kind of travel lectures. It would be the best thing for everybody.

Mr ALEXANDER SZÖRENYI, Budapest, National Union of Hungarian Students: You will excuse me when I say I am not an expert in the subject and if I cannot speak as well as the gentleman before me. I was a soldier during the war. I was an architect and when the war was finished I could not do anything because nobody would build. I stood as an example of the man who should like to get adult education, who was desirous of finding it. We had libraries, but the libraries were idle; they were closed. There were other libraries which were open till two o'clock. In the afternoon, when I had more time, they were not open. When they were open I had the whole day to go into the libraries. I wanted to learn English. Nobody could teach me. I had to get books, sometimes very bad books. Then I wanted to get

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good modern English books. I wanted first of all to get acquainted with those ideals which emerged during the War and after the War. They are the most important ideals which came up after the War, because never did humanity have such a great experience as during the War and through the hardships after the War. It was impossible to get books with those ideals; I could not get them. I could get good old authors of course. I went to Dickens and I went to Burns, and I went to other poets, and I learned through them my English. Now, all these things I tell only to show what our needs were on the banks of the Danube. I am sure it is the same in Vienna and Bucharest and Constantinople.

I am really thankful for the opportunity, while I represented 12,000 Hungarian students, that I came in such close contact with the Carnegie Fund and with those people who are interested in adult education. I am now engaged in adult education. I am teaching University students who don't have the opportunity of getting English in their own studies. I am teaching under the Presbyterian Faculty of Theology in Budapest. I am teacher of English in the Art School and in the Latin Students' Union, and, of course, French too. I am also teacher in the Young Men's Christian Association and I take other opportunities of teaching those who want to learn. Some of these students spend about ten, twenty or thirty per cent. of their monthly income on learning English. It is a hard task. I remember my own situation.

Then the other thing I wish to speak about is the library. For instance, we have in our University library quite a fine collection of foreign papers. The Review reading room of the University is open till two o'clock. Each student has time from nine o'clock in the morning up till two o'clock to read the papers. Then the French Government was so courteous and so kind as to send to

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one of our Colleges thirty-six French papers. It was a splendid thing. In the name of the National Union of Hungarian students I should like to beg that from the Carnegie Fund we should get an English library or social library with those necessary books which the Fund could select, and which would be very important for our students there. It would be an enormous means of spreading just the ideals of this Conference and of all those people who are present here.

What is to be done, and how is it to be done? That of course is not our business. We students can only express our desires and needs. We have had a long explanation about the adult education done for working men. There is no land in Central Europe where it would be so important to have a very good training for working men than in our land. We would like to get some kind of travelling professors who would come to us from the Trade Unions, let us say, of England or of America, so that the Hungarian working man should feel that here is a fellow workman of another land, because of course he does not think. (Laughter.) That is the great tragedy.

The educational worker cannot fight his way against the manual worker. The manual worker, especially in Central Europe, is far better off than the educational worker. That holds good in our land. The one man has the inclination to work and he does not like to study a book or does not like it in that form, and the other man is inclined to study the book. Now, there will be an enormous advantage if our working men could get some means of adult education by this way. The Hungarian students now beg for nothing more than that they should have the opportunity of receiving first-class education. The present system, of course, does not allow that.

Mr S. SATYAMURTI, B.A., B.L., M.L.C., Madras University: I have listened with very great pleasure

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to the addresses that have so far been delivered, and if I rise to speak now it is not to make any suggestions as to how adult education is to be carried on but rather to put the difficulties of my country before you in the matter of adult education and to ask your help by way of constructive suggestions as to how we can tackle the problem in our country effectively. I am very glad to have the opportunity of doing this at a meeting presided over by Sir Michael Sadler, because, he is one of the few men in these islands who are intimately familiar with the difficult problems of Indian education. (Applause.)

I should like to take this public opportunity of expressing the gratitude of all Indians interested in higher education to you as the President of the great Sadler Commission which examined the problems of the great Indian Universities. (Applause.) We have so far dealt with adult education on the basis that the adults of every country with which you are familiar are already educated, at least in the rudiments of education, that they can read and write, and therefore that we want to tackle the problem of how to carry on and continue education. But in India we have ninety per cent. of our people who can neither read nor write, and of the ten per cent. who can read and write, only roughly two or three per cent. can be said to be educated in the real sense of that word.

Now, I am not entering into politics. I don't want to say who is responsible for it, but how is it that ninety per cent. of our people can neither read nor write? Even if to-morrow we were to introduce compulsory education into our country, I expect it would take two generations before we could produce in our country a condition of education such as is to be found in other countries. Now, what is to happen to the population in the meantime for the next fifty or sixty years? That

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is the problem which we are trying to solve and I should like to hear the views of educationalists of other countries as to how best this problem is to be solved.

I was greatly impressed by the reference you made in your magnificent address to the influence of the mother tongue. In India the problem of adult education is complicated by the fact that we have at least ten to fifteen Indian languages. The difficulty therefore is in finding out some common medium of instruction by means of which we can spread adult education. Now, the problem in India is to give education to the adult who has not already been given the benefits of education, and to give him this education while he is an adult, to give him while he is working certain facilities which can give him ideas and ideals which he would not otherwise have, and to make of him a more efficient and better citizen than he would be if he had not that adult education.

Now, in India this problem was solved in a peculiar way. Our villages were self-contained communities and we had our village mission and school which between them contributed to the spiritual and temporal educational needs of our people. In my country, to an extent which those who have not been there may not realise, teaching by word of mouth and memorising things have played a large part. I am not an educational expert and therefore I cannot say whether it is the best kind of education, but undoubtedly throughout all the ages in India there has been teaching by word of mouth from teacher to pupils. And you must remember at a time when printing was not invented, India had a magnificent library and it was done by word of mouth. People could recite whole books by heart, and even to-day there are men and women in my country who can recite whole books by memory, as I am told there were in this country. I don't know if there are any to-day.

Therefore, I suggest that this International Confer-

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ence should take up this question of adult education in countries where it is needed. I humbly suggest to this Conference that so long as you do not tackle that problem and help those countries which have this large illiteracy to get education and to get high ideals of civil and national life, no international work you do will be of real lasting benefit to the other nations, because the deadweight of ignorance of millions of your fellow men in other parts of the Empire will be against you and you can make no way whatever. (Applause.)

Mr J. H. LUMBY, B.A., Executive of the National Union of Teachers, England: I should like to say a few words with reference to the relation of public libraries to adult education. In my opinion the appeal of the public library at the present time is far too passive. The libraries do not advertise themselves enough. I want to suggest that the main appeal for a library ought to be in the first instance through the schools, and that no child ought to leave the school without being given a library ticket so that he may continue the reading habit he formed in the school when he leaves the school. The second thing is this. Colonel Mitchell spoke about the co-operation that was necessary between the Library Authority and the Education Authority. I am sorry he had to make that appeal because in my opinion the Library Authority and the Education Authority should be one and indivisible. You cannot divorce the library system from the educational system. That is one reason why there are counties in England, and why there are urban communities in England, where there is no public library whatever. It is rather a curious thing that a local Education Authority may provide books in the schools and may even provide libraries for the children and be assisted by a grant from the national grant system, and yet when it comes to providing books for adults there is no State aid whatever for the local Education Authority.

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The third thing I want to say is this, and it is in respect that if a young student of industrial science possesses knowledge of the scientific enterprise in other countries he has very largely to know the languages of those countries, and I believe there is room in every country—I know there is in my own, England—for a translation bureau, by which the latest scientific investigations could be made known to young scientific students, and particularly students in connection with industry, without having to learn the language of that country. I believe there is a function there for a central library, and I believe there is a function there for the State in the provision of such translations so that our young learners may get at the latest scientific thought and the latest scientific advance of the Continent without having also to learn Continental languages. (Applause.)

Dr HENRY NOBLE M'CRACKEN, President of Vassar College, Poughkeepsie, New York: I think it is hardly necessary to ask the question, "What can this Federation do for the library?" since we all regard the library as one of the most powerful developments in the field of education. It seems to me that this Federation can do a great deal for the library, in the first place, by recognising the librarian's profession as a learned profession, and, in the second place, by recommending that the Library Associations of the World should attempt to co-ordinate their methods and technique, so that if possible the systems in the library services of the world should be more uniform, and so that the national loan of books which has been so well described should become an international loan.

Having been for two years or three years Chairman of the Home Committee for the American Library in Paris, I wish to refer to the work of this institution. This is an institution which serves both travel and education, since it is primarily for American travellers in Paris. If you go to 10 Rue de l'Elysée, you will see the library crowded with more readers than there

are chairs to sit on, with Americans and people of other nationalities who are using an English library on the Continent. In connection with this library there has been conducted a library school, where librarians of other countries have been taught the technique of library administration as at present understood in America.

If our library system in America is as efficient as has been so complimentarily expressed this afternoon, it is because of two factors; that the American Library Association is a well organised body and is insisting upon recognition of the professional standing of the librarian from the community, and that on the other hand the educational systems have recognised the librarian. In my own College, for example, the librarian holds the rank of a full professor and is a member of the Faculty. I made a recent tour of fifteen European countries, visiting the libraries in each of these countries, and I am therefore competent perhaps to say that what is needed is not so much the spirit to make the library of service in its technique and administration, but recognition by the community of the part that the library can play. That can come only in part from the advertisement of the library itself, to which reference has been made. It must come still more from the recognition by the learned profession of teachers.

Something of the international loan in the library service has already been accomplished. I may give an illustration perhaps, although it is an American one—I am not aware of a similar one—between my own College and the University of Warsaw. I found in the city of Warsaw many students engaged in the study of social organisation, planning to take part in the Government service of the democracy recently established, and quite without the means of knowing the experiment of the American democracy. Since there were no books in this field of study in the city of Warsaw, I mentioned this to some friends in America. We put together at a cost of about 2000 dollars a small library, chosen by

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the American Library Association from expert knowledge, and presented this to the University of Warsaw for the use of its students. (Applause.) But this gift is by no means a gift of charity, because the University of Warsaw has made a magnificent return to our library in the gift of a collection of Polish music, of which we had known nothing before, and which is of the greatest advantage to our country. We were almost totally ignorant of large branches of Polish music, and this collection is of immense value to us. May I recommend such an exchange amongst the public libraries of the world, and particularly that this Federation should recognise the International Libraries Association as an important part of our own service. (Applause.)

Professor PAUL OTLET, Union of International Associations, Brussels, made an appeal for the creation of a great intellectual centre (Mundaneum) on lines similar to those advocated by the speaker at other group meetings.

THE CHAIRMAN: I have to thank all those who have taken part in this discussion. We have heard a number of very useful things. I think on my own mind these impressions are left most vividly. In the first place, Britain—Scotland, England and Wales particularly—has a specific and remarkable contribution to make to adult education at this moment, and that is the tested instrument of the tutorial class, a new and very valuable educational method, free altogether from the bondage of examinations and springing out of the needs of various groups in the community, not least the working people, open to both men and women, and in alliance with the Universities and University Colleges of the country.

I feel, also, that to us in Britain the living word has come through several speakers that we must somehow or other bring new vitality and educational power into our ordinary library service. We have great libraries in Britain, very noble library traditions—don't let us forget that—but we somehow or other have not brought the

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smaller and more localised library into its fullest possible connection with the varied life of our community. That is the second thing that is borne in upon me.

The third thing that I want to feel is that our whole environment is full of vital significance to education, and that the business of teaching is not a business or a profession only, still less of this or that section of the profession, but the business of every adult citizen in relation to his juniors and subordinates. If we can only feel that we ourselves are always living and learning, we pass on this great tradition, enriched by our own vitality, to those who come after us, and that leads me to what has been said by our Indian colleague. Surely one of our great problems is to think how we can bring the aspects of a liberal adult education to those who are at present in illiteracy but have the experience of life. It is not only through knowing how to read and write that we get the essence of culture but through the experience of life. And I would say that that may even sterilise much that is really precious in our own traditions if we think of it too much under the aspect of illiteracy. We get some of the greatest things through the faith, through the benefaction of other personalities, through the greatness of our traditions, above all from the examples of self-sacrifice and kindness. This is all adult education and these are things which, wherever you have got humanity, you can get, if only you can get people to feel confidence in themselves and proud of the things which they ought to be proud of.

And I do feel what one of the speakers said about the importance of spreading more widely the essence of intelligent travelling amongst communities at present. I don't mean simply going to Paris or other places to see the extraordinary beauties or antiquities of other countries. I mean something far more than that. I mean entering into the life of other countries and into the mentality of other peoples. I am sure that far more

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can be done than has been done yet to make this experience possible to the young and to the comparatively poor, provided that each in his own country does feel some obligation to share with others in receiving foreign visitors and, if possible, admitting them into what is often so secret and private, namely, the inner kind of national life. (Applause.) Although we cannot all agree, although we have different Governments and different traditions, I believe it is possible to become more intensely fond of your own country the more you deeply appreciate the other countries with whom you have come in contact. (Applause.)

I have not touched on all the points, but the most fundamental of all is what Mr Hartog said. We are not teaching in order to bring people blindfold into sections, even although we believe them to be true. Most sacred of all is to respect the intellectual conscience. We want to approach everyone so that they shall see what they have to judge from and then themselves judge. It is in that spirit of scientific veracity, not simply of objective veracity but the veracity which is full of the passion of emotion—it is in that spirit of veracity that the real gift of education comes. It is not simply in the case of working people, to whom you, Sir (Professor Norman Kemp Smith), spoke so splendidly; it is not simply of this or that adult community that this is true. We want the intellectual conscience trained and illuminated in every grade of education—young, adolescent and adult—because it is in that fine kind of charity and insight that judgment really adjusts itself to truth. Those are the things that I shall carry away from this Conference, and I am sure you will all wish to join with me in thanking those who have helped us to get that. (Applause.)

A DELEGATE: I beg to move a hearty vote of thanks to the Chairman for his conduct in the Chair this afternoon.

The vote of thanks was cordially given.

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Summary Report of Proceedings by the Secretary,
Professor W.M. MCLELLAND, University of St
Andrews.

The first meeting of the Universities Section was held in the United Free Church Assembly Hall, Edinburgh, on Wednesday, 22nd July 1925, at 10 a.m., under the Chairmanship of Sir DONALD MACALISTER, Bart., K.C.B., Principal of the University of Glasgow. Professor PATRICK GEDDES, Collège des Ecossais, Montpellier, opened the discussion with a paper on "Universities, Past, Present, and Possible," in the course of which he made a historical survey of the development of University ideals and referred to the main reconstructive endeavours which are manifest at the present day. He emphasised the attempt to indicate each subject of higher study in its historic origins and developments and in its due relation to other studies, in such a way as to contribute to a fuller understanding of nature and civilisation.

In the ensuing discussion several delegates described the attempts already made in their own Universities to put this idea into practice. M. Petit-Dutaillis and M. Desclos of the Office National des Universités de France dealt with the problems of the interchange of students and equivalence of degrees and attendances, and made various suggestions as to improvements in the existing arrangements which would further the cause of international education.

The second meeting was held in the Assembly Hall

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on Friday 24th July, at 2.30 p.m., under the Chairmanship of Dr R. A. DUFF, University of Glasgow. The opening address was delivered by Dr H. NOBLE MACCRACKEN, Vassar College, U.S.A., who dealt with the relationship of the Universities to the objects of the Federation. He made various constructive suggestions as to ways in which the Universities could help in carrying out the objects of the Federation, and emphasised the importance of cultivating an international outlook in students by such methods as interchange of students and the introduction of courses bearing upon International Sociology. In a paper entitled "The International University and Mundaneum," Professor OTLET, Brussels, gave an account of the forces behind the movement for the establishment of a World University and explained what had already been done towards this end. He put forward a suggestion that the Federation should give their support to the establishment of a World University and that a committee be formed to consider the matter and report.

Mrs E. LOWE GORDON, New York, recommended that a committee of the World Federation be appointed to consider how far the International Summer Camp movement could be made effective in the development of better international relations.

In closing the discussion Professor Patrick Geddes suggested that the resolutions of the San Francisco Conference, 1923, dealing with the unification of scientific terminology and the establishment of a World University and Universal Library Bureau be amplified and rendered more definite.

It was resolved that the suggestions made by Professor Otlet, Mrs E. Lowe Gordon, and Professor Patrick Geddes; together with those brought forward by MM. Petit-Dutaillis and Desclos, should be sent on for consideration at a plenary session of the Federation.

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Wednesday, 22nd July.

Chairman—Sir DONALD MACALISTER, Bart., K.C.B.,
Principal of the University of Glasgow.

Sir DONALD MACALISTER: In opening the session of the Universities Section of this Conference, which proposes to discuss to-day some of the urgent problems of University progress, I think it may not be unfitting that I should outline briefly the present organisation and aims of the Scottish Universities, in order that our visitors from overseas may better understand such allusions to them as Professor Patrick Geddes and other speakers from this country are likely to make to them, and may better understand the conditions that help to hinder their progress.

The three medieval Universities, St Andrews, Glasgow, and Aberdeen, were originally instituted about five hundred years ago by papal authority, then the only authority which could grant academic privilege of international validity. The post-Reformation University of Edinburgh, originally the Municipal College, was by royal authority modelled on the same general lines. All four thus show numerous traces of the constitution they derived directly or indirectly from the older foundations of Bologna and Paris. They are partly student-universities like Bologna, and partly master-universities like Paris. They are partly colleges of the humane arts, partly faculties of post-graduate or professional studies, such as Divinity, Law, and Medicine. They are maintained, apart from fees, partly by means of ancient and modern endowments and benefactions, partly by means of State grants voted by Parliament. They have a large measure of autonomy in the regulation of their teaching and examination, but in certain important matters, such as the conditions of admission, and the regulations for graduation, they are constrained by law to act together or at least in consultation, and their internal legislation by ordinance

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is subject to a veto by His Majesty the King in Council.

The governing bodies are the University Court, the Senate, the General Council of Graduates, and the Students' Representative Council. The last is chosen annually by the whole body of matriculated *students*, and concerns itself with their interests. It can petition on their behalf the Senate and the Court. The student-body once in three years elects the Rector as at Bologna 900 years ago, and he is the second highest officer in the University, and President of the Court. The Chancellor, the highest officer, is elected by the General Council, made up of the whole body of *Graduates*, men and women, and he is the President of the Council, as in medieval Paris. The Senate represents the teaching-body, and includes all the Professors, and of late years, a proportion of the Lecturers, or Assistant Professors. The Senate is responsible for the organisation of teaching and the academic discipline of students. An appeal lies from the Senate to the Court, in case of dispute.

The University Court is a small body, corresponding to the Trustees or the Corporation of American Universities, and charged with the whole finance and administration of the University, the making of appointments, and the framing of new Ordinances and Regulations. It consists of the Rector and his Assessor, representing the students; the Chancellor's Assessor (but not the Chancellor himself, whose duties are largely ceremonial); the Lord Provost of the City and an Assessor chosen by the City Corporation, who represent the municipal authority and form a useful link with the city and the citizens; four members elected by the General Council of Graduates; four members elected by the Senate of teachers; and the *Principal*. It is thus a democratic and representative body, not an autocracy imposed on the University. Students, graduates, teachers, and citizens all contribute to its membership, and it is subject to constant changes of composition. Inasmuch as the *Principal* (who at the older

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Universities is appointed by the King) is a permanent member, and normally presides in the absence of the Rector, it may be said that in *their* Courts the Royal authority also is represented. The Principal moreover presides at the Senate, and usually at the Council of Graduates in the absence of the Chancellor. As the Chancellor and Rector are rarely present, the Principal is thus the ordinary Chairman of Court, Senate, and Council—and so has opportunity to serve as a co-ordinating and harmonising factor in the academic mechanism. He is the "chief executive" of the university commonwealth. He has much less power than a University President in America; but I would not say that he has less responsibility or less effective influence as the spokesman of the whole body within and without the University, if only the several organs of academic governance are working well together, and possess the confidence of the Government and the people.

By their history and constitution the Scottish Universities are at once civic, national, and international. They are intimately associated with the life and welfare of their own cities, as, for example, Oxford and Cambridge are not. They are national, not merely provincial, for each subserves the needs of Scotland as a whole, as well as those of its geographical province, and each works with its sisters on general lines that are common to all, and under laws that are sanctioned by one Scottish Committee of the Privy Council. The standard of school education to be attained by students as a condition of admission to the Universities is fixed and attested, not by themselves individually, but by a national Entrance Board common to all. There is even a common Superannuation System for members of their staffs, which under Parliamentary sanction they all may adopt and which all are in process of adopting.

And they are international, for they are open to students of all countries and races who are sufficiently

proficient in school subjects to profit by their instruction; and their academic degrees and diplomas are freely recognised abroad as evidence of sound learning and professional training. There must be but few countries in the world where Scottish graduates are not found in places of responsibility and honour.

It has long been the pride of Scotland that, even in the old days of the fixed Arts Curriculum, with its seven compulsory subjects, when there were few urban and practically no rural secondary schools professing to prepare for the University, no lad of parts or promise need despair of getting to College and obtaining a liberal education. The degree was often obtained at the cost of hardship and privation to the student and his family, and it *was* obtained.

In recent years the widened choice of subjects, the provision of innumerable bursaries, the benefaction of Mr Carnegie and the multiplication of secondary schools, which was one of its undesigned effects, and the liberal contributions made by the State and by the counties and towns to popular education, have made it vastly easier for poor Scottish families to fulfil their ambition, and give their capable sons and daughters the chance of a University training. So now the proportion of the population of Scotland that reaches the University is higher than ever, and the Universities are hard put to it to expand fast enough to meet the demand for sufficient buildings and sufficient teachers. A new conception, moreover, of the duty of the Universities to their undergraduate alumni has arisen. It is no longer enough to provide them with classroom instruction during a few hours of the day, and leave them to their own resources when they pass out of the College gate. Student residences, where a decent and humane life in fellowship may be lived by the undergraduate, are taking the place of solitary and cheerless lodgings; clubs and college unions are provided for his social and intellectual intercourse in hours of leisure, grounds and buildings are appearing where physical exer-

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cise and athletic games may be practised, to the advantage of health and comradeship and the discipline of loyal co-operation to a corporate end. All these mark the progress of the Scottish Universities towards the full realisation of their enlarged function in the State. That function is not fulfilled by the production of mere scholars, however learned, but of well-equipped and healthy citizens, soundly schooled and instructed in the arts and sciences, but trained also by self-endeavour and corporate experience for the give and take of life, for rational commerce with their fellows, for effort with and for the team towards the good of the whole.

If, as we confidently hope, the recent progress of the Scottish Universities is in *that* direction, if to the former qualities of Scottish students, endurance of hardship, perseverance, self-reliance, ambition, there be added these further graces of civic and social character, the multiplication of their numbers will conduce to the better government of the city, the state, and the world, and the speedier solution of the urgent problems that face the nations—as well as the universities.

Universities, Past, Present and Possible.

Address by Professor PATRICK GEDDES, Collège des Ecossais, Montpellier, France.

Professor PATRICK GEDDES : Groupings towards the maintenance, the advancement, and the diffusion of higher learning have ever arisen from movements of thought, and more than ever continue thus to arise. These require (and so tend to acquire) institutional form. But like all other institutions more or less—these have difficulty in re-adaptation to the demands of rising generations. Hence new groupings arise, at first commonly extra-mural, yet at times becoming collegiate; and so in time these may more or less modify the older organisation, even to dominating it, if not replacing it.

An historic survey of Universities is thus desirable,

indeed necessary. Broadly outlined, their principal forms have been Hellenic, Hellenistic, Monastic, Medieval, Renaissance, Encyclopedic, and Examinational: and the study of the respective emergences and developments of these types, to their maturities and their senescences, with their influences accordingly, is of an interest ever-increasing, for all possible reasons, both speculative and practical. Appreciation of their respective qualities and achievements, their limitations and deteriorations also, is necessary towards an understanding of our universities in the present, and further helpful, towards the needed critical study of current or nascent movements towards change.

These questions, of contemporary and incipient progress, have not only long been expressed in discontents and critical discussions, with projected or attempted changes in established universities, but have notably given impulse to re-adjustments within these, as in varying measure in all their old "Faculties," and even to establishment of new ones. Re-arrangements and re-adaptations—sometimes re-historic, sometimes new—are thus everywhere in progress: so that religious or philosophical renewals or advances are thus widely in evidence, and scientific and technical institutes get more conspicuously so. New universities have also been arising, and in cities new and old, and these not only essentially following up, as far as may be, the existing traditions and methods of their seniors, as usually in America as in Britain, but sometimes also of more or less distinctive aims and initiatives—witness Gurnkhal and Benares, Jerusalem, Hyderabad, Santeniketan, etc. University Extension, Vacation Schools, University Settlements, etc., also increasingly advance needed propagandas of higher education.

Moreover, outside all specific University institutions and endeavours, many thinkers of the past century have been of educational influence, sometimes even leading to initiatives. Witness St Simon, Comte, and Le Play in

France, or Spencer and Ruskin in England, and not a few in other countries. Such educational fermentations are now more numerous and varied than ever. Witness so many religious, philosophical, social, and scientific movements, and their varied admixtures, all nowadays so manifest among us and around us. Enquiry into these many would-be "schools of the prophets" cannot but be instructive, at anyrate in many cases; and indeed will be found more or less suggestive in all.

Our thought, however, is now environed by the after-war situation: and amid this—despite all perplexities, overcloudings, and discouragements—reconstructive endeavours are exceedingly manifest. Educational ideals are renewing, and of many kinds, old and new, indeed often mingled, and both in theory and in practice; as from the "Neo-Thomism" of Louvain to the "New Thought" so often announced from America; and with like extremes in educational policy, as from Czechoslovakia to Russia, Denmark to Italy, and so on.

Especially hopeful in this world-fermentation is the increase of synthetic aspirations and endeavours, which before the war were but in "the day of small things," but are now becoming more influential, and even manifest. Witness movements like those of International Associations and of International Bibliography (at this Conference happily represented by their foremost promotor, M. Paul Otlet), as also the League of Nations Committee for International Intellectual Relations, which is now preparing to take up its centre in Paris. And at this time, when the American attitude to educational freedom and progress is being so popularly misrepresented by the world's press as centering in Tennessee, it is but fair to recall—and as a progress in higher education in some ways unparalleled since the thirteenth century—the recent admirable advances of Columbia, Dartmouth, etc., towards supplying the much-needed introduction to higher education, in all its faculties and departments, in terms of

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general courses, in which each and every special subject of higher studies, humanistic and scientific alike, is indicated in its historic origin and development, its appropriate place, and its significance towards the understanding of nature and of civilisation, and not only in their separate but their co-adaptive evolution. Is not this in fact the most definite opening of a new period of University development, in which each and every essential subject of higher studies, scientific and humanistic, is being indicated as far as may be in its historic origins and developments, and in its due relation to other studies : in short, in its significance towards the fuller understanding of nature and civilisation; and these not only in their separate, but their co-adaptive evolution, past, present, and possible? Is not this, in fact, the most definite of openings of a new period of University development, comparable to those already outlined? For on such lines we may continue their historic values ; we may meet our modern situation and its requirements more adequately, and even advance more safely towards the opening future. Here then opens fresh outlooks, clearer discussions, further initiatives.

Professor GEDDES added : We must create a new set of psychological values in which to set our Universities in progress. I put to you the proposition that the various biological sciences are only developments of the old common sense questions. You are only going to the ant, as Solomon recommended. I submit this proposition, that as thought is like life in relation to its environment, the confusion and squalor of your outward environment reacts upon the confusion and disorder within. (Loud applause.)

THE CHAIRMAN: Towards the end of his summary Profesor Geddes suggests a line on which we might usefully obtain experience, which, after all, is one of the things we hope for from this Conference. He has spoken not of the organisation of Universities as machines, but rather of the re-orientation of instruction from the point of view of the individual Professor, whatever his subject may be.

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He expresses the need for re-relating the diverse sciences and art in instruction, and for breaking down the water-tight compartments between the several branches of knowledge and instruction, a definite opening of a new period of University development, in which each and every department of knowledge is being engaged in its history, origin and development. The teaching of every subject should be historical at the beginning in its due relation to other subjects. That is what I call breaking down the water-tight compartments. Let the teacher of every subject make it his duty to relate it to the other subjects which the student is engaged in at the same time. In short, to teach his subject in relation to the fuller understanding of nature; that is to say, the world from the scientific point of view and the world of man from the human point of view, and these not only in their separate but in their co-adaptive evolution—the word is not mine—past, present and possible.

I venture to think that in most progressive Universities and in the hands of most progressive teachers in the non-progressive Universities, that method is being adopted and utilised largely and profitably, and I think it might be useful to Professor Patrick Geddes if individual members of this Assembly, representing the individual Universities in many parts of the world, were in a few words to tell us how far that idea is already in action in their respective Universities. My own impression is that it is not such a new thing as Professor Patrick Geddes said. With regard to the other divagations he indulged in, which are extremely characteristic of his encyclopædic non-examinational knowledge—(laughter)—I am reminded of a story. This note appeared as the peroration on one of Sidgwick's lectures, "Thus we see in Socrates we had the seed; in Plato we had the flower; and in Aristotle we had the fruit," a very charming summary, but a wretched student had summed up in red ink besides the phrase "and in Sidgwick the jam." (Laughter.) I am quite sure the Professors to-day,

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who are bound to dispense jam, because it is the article in demand, are not altogether forgetful of their duty to instil where the seed and flower and fruit came in.

University Education in India.

Address by Mr A. YUSUF ALI, Delegate of the International Moral Education Congress.

Mr YUSUF ALI : A great awakening has recently taken place in university education in India. This may roughly be dated from the visit of the King and Queen on the occasion of the Delhi Durbar in 1911. The King in his speech then emphasised the need for an extensive and intensive development of education, and increasing grants have been allocated by Government for education ever since. The pace was accelerated by the post-war conditions. As in all other countries, the educational machinery in India is being overhauled, and an immensely larger number of people are taking advantage of educational institutions.

The landmarks in the history of Indian universities may be stated under four heads. First, there was the year 1857, when the Presidency Universities were founded. This movement itself was part of a much larger educational movement, that had been in incubation during the first half of the nineteenth century. The second stage was reached with the Report of the Education Commission of 1883. This Report dealt very comprehensively with the machinery of education in all its grades, and it helped to fit the universities better into the scheme of general education. The universities were now no longer isolated factors in educational machinery, but were linked up with all that went before in the history of the students. The area of education was immensely enlarged, and the system of grants-in-aid was worked out and extended. The third stage was reached in the Viceroyalty of Lord Curzon in 1904. A Universities Act was passed in that year as the result of a Universities Commission. The governing

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bodies of the Universities were made smaller, and the weight of professional educationists in framing and carrying out educational policy was greatly increased. The gain derived from their technical experience was somewhat neutralised by the opposition which this policy evoked in lay minds, and it found expression in the statement that the universities were more officialised than ever. The last stage, although it cannot possibly be in any sense a final one, was reached with the report of the recent Sadler Commission. This was appointed in the first instance to overhaul the conditions in the overgrown University of Calcutta. But its recommendations touched many important questions of principle, and were applied or are being applied to other universities. The post-war conditions have also suggested numerous reforms and a new orientation in educational policy.

The problems of secular *versus* religious education; the classics *versus* useful modern knowledge; technical *versus* cultural education; and teaching *versus* examining universities are nowhere more hotly debated than in India, where further elements of complication are added from great diversities in ethnical, religious, social, and cultural standards. The number of universities has recently been multiplied from five to fifteen, and the number is still being added to—a policy about which some doubts are already being expressed. Experiments in denominational (or religious) universities are being carried out at Aligarh and Benares. The use of an Indian vernacular (Urdu) as the medium of university instruction is being watched at the Osmania University of Hyderabad, but other universities have not yet followed suit. The usual medium of instruction in other universities in India is English. The social studies of the Calcutta University, the fine lead in the publication of Sanskrit texts given by the Mysore University, and the Department of Islamic Studies in the Dacca University are instances of the specialisation that is giving each of the universities a character of its own.

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At the same time the problems of the co-ordination of these universities and of the life of university students is being examined and faced, though very inadequately so far.

Professor DYBOSKI, Cracow University: I wish to say what a great pleasure it gives me to take this opportunity of conveying the greetings and good wishes of my own University, the oldest University of Poland, to the various representatives of the Universities here assembled, and particularly to the representatives of the great old Scottish Universities. (Applause.) I wish to raise briefly two points as being among the foremost difficulties which countries like mine, who get up a new educational system, have before them. One of them has been alluded to by Professor Geddes. There is a widespread feeling in the world of reaction against specialisation which, in a sense, has been overdone in the twentieth century. This began with instruction converging towards a certain common aim and centre, to citizenship in particular, a general phenomena. It is connected with a social phenomenon in our days. It is the dogmatism of culture. Universities have sometimes given the appearance of shutting their doors against newcomers. The Principal of Edinburgh University spoke some bitter and unpopular truths when he said that the University must remain a selective institution. But the dilemma is not so hopeless as it seems. The House of Commons wonderfully fulfils its selective purposes. It creates out of a democratic system an oligarchy, and an oligarchy in the best sense of aristocracy.

I want to allude to another great defect which you must have the courage to face in University life, and that is the battle between Nationalist and Internationalist. Universities are the battleground of that as in other institutions. We must not disregard the fact that Nationalism is very strong and that there are in the Nationalism of various countries very substantial and estimable values. I should like to say how much encouragement for the

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solution of this difficult task we derive from the splendid example of American Universities. I am getting letters from a student in Columbia saying, "I used to think it was a land of dollars and I find it is the most idealistic country in the world." They are spreading their influence more and more over the Nations of the earth. They are an example of how International aspirations can be attained within the framework of a great National culture. (Applause.)

THE CHAIRMAN: I think the Assembly may be assured that Professor Dyboski represents the spirit of Cracow which is not likely to fail to grasp the nuance of ideas that have been uttered this morning.

Dr STEPHEN PIERCE DUGGAN, Director of the Institute of International Education, New York: I wish to offer a word of gratitude to Professor Geddes for giving me the opportunity of listening to what he said. I arrived here only last night after a journey from the Philippines across the Pacific to the East and back by way of China to Russia and Europe. When I arrived in Moscow I had an interview with the Commissar of Education, with whom I spoke with great frankness about Russian Education. I mentioned that we in the West were somewhat disturbed over the ejection of some Professors from Universities, and for the first time in my life—though I hope I am a fairly intelligent American—I learned of Dayton, Tennessee. (Laughter.) When I had mentioned the fact about which we were somewhat disturbed, the Commissar told me that it came with rather bad grace from an American just at this time. After leaving Moscow I went to Berlin, travelling by aeroplane, and there I discussed University affairs with the distinguished Director of the American Institute. He said to me—and it was almost the first thing he said—"My dear Dr Duggan, I stand here as the representative and exponent of American culture to the German people

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and particularly to the German Universities, but I am just now having a hard job about it because of Dayton, Tennessee." (Laughter.) In order to get to this meeting in time I had flown from Moscow to Berlin. Then I went to Paris to talk to the Director of Education, and he said, "I wish we could do something to prevent the talk about Dayton, Tennessee." (Laughter.) I arrived here only last night and had a number of errands to do, and I came in here just in time to hear Professor Geddes refer to Dayton, Tennessee. (Renewed laughter.)

A very fine reference was made by Professor Geddes to the lack of co-ordination in teaching in our various Universities. Now, as the momentary representative of the culture included—and now represented before the world by Dayton, Tennessee—in the American Universities of the finest type, the thing he is advocating so admirably this morning has been taught in the past few years almost *in toto*. At London (England) University, for example, every student takes one of the finest courses that I know that has ever been developed, called a course in contemporary civilisation. This course, which is given to small groups by selected teachers, has to do with the attempt described by Professor Geddes to co-ordinate the branches of knowledge so that the student will have been orientated into the life into which he is to be ejected. The entire background of life to-day is given to the student, and that course on the humanistic side is paralleled on the scientific side, so that just as the student will have a knowledge of the humanistic background, so he receives a knowledge of the background of nature in which he lives. I am simply mentioning that and emphasising it just now in order to do a little of what the Directors of Education of Paris and Berlin asked me to do, to try and overcome the deadly influence of Dayton, Tennessee. (Applause.)

Professor PETIT-DUTAILLIS, Director of the Office

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National des Universités de France, addressed the Assembly in French, outlining the work of the organisation he represented.

M. A. DESCLOS, Assistant Director of the Office National des Universités de France, said: We seek to send out into the world as many French intellectual workers as possible, students and professors. We send them out in search of knowledge and we are pleased to receive intellectual workers from other countries who come to seek knowledge in France. It is a very difficult undertaking indeed, because we are met on all sides by the peculiarities of organisation of all the different institutions of higher knowledge. The regulations concerning the admission of students to these institutions all over the world are extremely protective and make it very difficult for students to pass from one University to another, and we have tried in France to open as widely as possible the doors giving access to our different institutions of higher learning.

As you no doubt know, almost all the scholastic institutions in France are under the State. The Office National des Universités has instituted a means of modifying the laws and regulations concerning the admission of students in our Universities so as to enable foreign intellectual workers to come and work amongst us. We have established a system of equivalents of attendance and a system of equivalents of degree by which students in foreign universities may come and work at our institutions and on their arrival amongst us they are at once credited with the time that they have spent already in their own country and with the degrees and diplomas that they have obtained in their own country. This system of equivalents has been settled with twenty-eight different countries and we work on a system of reciprocity, and we hope we interpret this reciprocity in a liberal spirit. In return for this we have asked for

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nothing. In many cases we have had nothing. (Laughter.) I may say that we would be grateful to get something.

Perhaps the country with which we have come to the most practical understanding is the United States of America. With the help of Dr Duggan and of the Institute of International Education in Washington, a system has been arrived at by which we get in the United States a reciprocity for what we give in France, and under arrangements which have been made hundreds of students have come from America to France or are going from France to America. Professors have been exchanged from our own Universities with the American Universities, and a considerable stream of exchanges both of Professors and students has been flowing between the two countries, and we hope that the stream will go on flowing in an increasing volume.

I venture to submit to you a number of resolutions. These resolutions have been suggested to us in the course of our work by the difficulties that we have found in the different countries, our own included, and we propose to submit to you these resolutions so that they may be placed before the proper authorities in each country for discussion, and by the help of those resolutions we may facilitate this exchange of Professors and students and intellectual workers of all sorts.

THE CHAIRMAN: We do not propose to take resolutions here. We are here for free discussion, but it is in order for you to read what you would have put before us if it had been in order.

M. DESCLOS: These are the resolutions I would have submitted if I had been proposing them. The first is : That passport regulations, visa fees and residence dues in the different countries be so revised and adjusted in the case of bona-fide foreign students as to ensure preferential treatment.

Indeed, students travelling from one country to another are met with serious difficulties in the way of

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fees they have to pay, and nowadays, very much as in the Middle Ages, I think the poor student is in the majority, and, therefore, if our young men are to go from one country to another we must do our best to overcome these financial difficulties. The next resolution is : For the proper administration of exchanges of students between the Universities of different countries a list of accredited or recognised Institutions of higher learning in each country is necessary. It is believed that the Commission on Intellectual co-operation of the League of Nations is the proper organ to draft such a list and it is desirable that the Commission undertake this work. But it is understood that the list so drafted should be intended for the voluntary acceptance of the Institutions in each country.

A third resolution is : That, following upon existing agreements, a general system of equivalence of degrees, diplomas and attendance be established among all accredited or recognised Universities or Institutions, under such conditions that :

(a) Any student transferring from one to another of the said Universities or Institutions should be granted full credit for the time spent at his parent University.

(b) The same treatment should be awarded by the parent University on the student's return.

The duration of a student's lease of absence should be left to the judgment of the parent University.

(c) All regular diplomas or degrees granted by an accredited or recognised University or Institution should be accepted at their face value by all such Universities or Institutions, with a view to the holder's admission as a candidate to a higher degree.

The fourth resolution is : That, in the case of foreign students, matriculation and tuition fees should not exceed the fees of their parent University.

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The last resolution is: That a clearing-house be placed in charge by each nation of all matters falling within the field of international education.

A DELEGATE inquired if there was any organisation which could deal with the matters raised in the resolutions.

THE CHAIRMAN: There is an organisation in this country called The Universities Bureau of the British Empire. That is the Executive body which looks after exactly these matters which have been brought before you to-day. It is impossible for us to take up resolutions and discuss them when there are obviously views for and against of which no notice has been given. What I propose to do is to ask M. Desclos to give us these resolutions as the expression of opinion, I take it, of the Office National, and I promise to bring them before that Executive body in due course. (Applause.) Every one of them will be considered and discussed.

A LADY DELEGATE: May these resolutions be included in the Herman-Jordan plan?

THE CHAIRMAN: They cannot be included in the Conference. They are Executive resolutions, and that is my ruling.

MISS ELLA MUNSTERBERG, daughter of Huys Munsterberg, Harvard, U.S.A.: I dare to face you only because I do not think there is anybody else from Harvard University here, and as I have lived under the shadow of our Harvard elms for over twenty years I want to tell you that it is to my mind the most idealistic place and the place of visions, and I do not know if you know that. Do you know that in our Harvard Chapel there are speakers of every denomination and of every religion? Almost every Sunday we have different speakers, and do you know there is breadth of understanding and

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breadth of viewpoint in our Harvard University? In our little department, not so very little, the philosophical department, Professor James, Professor Royce and my father who lived eight years ago all had different opinions, and different world theories, but they lived in the greatest amity and the greatest friendship and harmony and idealism of understanding. These were the words of our present President, Mr Lowell, "When the young men shall see visions the dreams of the old men will come true."

Professor PAUL OTLET, Brussels: It is necessary that we return to the splendid ideals that Professor Geddes has laid before us. What does it mean that a University must be really a University? A University must be universal, and you must have, first, a representation of all branches of knowledge and activities and include also new branches and new activities and also a great part of such activities as art, and to reduce all these branches of knowledge to a central focus of knowledge, syntheses of men, of civilisation and of nature. A University must be in a larger sense International. Each National local University must be a central point which will be International in all relations and in all senses. The University must be an inter-classes society.

THE CHAIRMAN: I do not think we could profitably sum up what has been said, because it scarcely lends itself to focus, but at least we are conscious that we have been stirred up and stimulated to thought and inquiry, and for that we are grateful.

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Friday, 24th July.

CHAIRMAN : Dr R. A. DUFF, University of Glasgow.

THE CHAIRMAN : As most of you are aware, the Chair should have been occupied at this meeting by my colleague Dr MacGillivray, but with quite uncalled-for modesty he has forced the position upon me to-day. The session of this conference, as you are aware, is a continuation of that held on Wednesday morning last, when Professor Geddes gave us a bird's eye view of the past history of University Development and of some future lines along which he thought it ought to develop. I think one may fairly describe that as a view from Pizgah of the Promised Land, or perhaps, in more modern phrase, an aeroplane view of what has lain behind and of what is to come. But it still remains perhaps, for the Generals and the Captains of the Host and the foot soldiers to go in and try to possess the land of which Professor Geddes here gave us his bird's eye view. In the few words that I shall address to you to-day I shall not attempt to follow the way of the eagle, because it is entirely beyond my power, but the more humble road of the pedestrian.

First of all, I should like to lay stress upon the fact that whilst university education is primarily an affair of bringing a lesson to your mind under the influence of wiser and more mature minds, yet the institutional side of it is by no means unimportant, and that best organisation of these educational institutions in their corporate life and in their relations with one another calls for no less breadth of vision and of sympathy than does the work of the individual teacher. Whilst the impulse to discover the secrets of nature and of human life is the soul of every University, it would be very incomplete without the atmosphere of discipleship and of co-operation on the part of the students on the one hand and on the part of the teachers on the other, for that furnishes at once the most powerful stimulus to research and also

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the surest reward for good work. Every true University stands for the unity of knowledge—and I think it has always stood for it—for the seamless garment of truth. Its various Faculties and curricula are visible evidence not only of the vastness of the field of knowledge, but equally of the essential unity of that field. If the specialist is ever tempted to lose himself in his absorption in his own subject, he is constantly being reminded of this limitation by the questionings of his pupils and by the labours of his own colleagues. I shall, therefore, in the few suggestions I shall make at the opening refer to a few of the constantly occurring difficulties which stand in the way of the free and full expression of that spirit of knowledge and of enquiry which is the true life of every university. I shall not discuss any of these difficulties but shall simply throw them down baldly on the table, in the hope that some people may find them a useful peg on which to hang some later remarks.

First of all, one difficulty which faces Universities is the steady trend not only towards national Universities but to provincial, and still more to local or urban Universities. Communities now seem to regard a University as one of the indispensable elements of the equipment of any fair-sized community. Is this a desirable or an undesirable development to the University students?

Secondly, does the democratising of the Universities with the ever-increasing volume of students who are being sent on from the secondary schools, involve necessarily a lowering of the standard of university education and of the level of scholarship for the best? Now, is individual training being sacrificed on the altar of the advancement of the mediocre or the average man?

Thirdly, Universities tend to become increasingly a means by which professional advancement is secured. They tend to become a preparation for the different callings. They make ministers, doctors, lawyers, teachers.

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Do they also make scholars and men who are in love with learning irrespective of their professions and callings in life? Are they professional schools of training, or are they seminaries of learning and for the lover of truth?

Fourthly, now that more and more of our Universities are opening their doors to women or establishing Women's Universities for themselves, we are faced by two new problems. The one is whether education is or is not a helpful method or line of development to both sexes. The other is whether the same education that has been found good for men in the past and in the present is necessarily equally good for women in the present and in the future.

Fifthly, how far does lay control threaten to take away the freedom of the University teacher and the internal autonomy of education institutions? That control exists on the old principle that he who pays the piper has a right to call the tune. One cannot object to him calling the tune, but one may object to him composing the tune as well. Is the lay control a necessary evil, and, if necessary at all, is it an inevitable condition of progress? We are faced by it in two forms—the private donor who can establish a University out of the profits of his millions in oil or something else. We are faced by it in the form of the State, which can establish equally permanently and perhaps even more generously. In this country so far, although we have not had much experience of public funds given for these purposes, we are increasingly obtaining experience, and our public funds are administered under what is known as the Universities Grants Committee. That Committee, I think, deserves a word of praise, because its principle has been to leave the Universities the utmost possible autonomy, to give money in lump sums and without detailed conditions. The policy also of this Grants Committee is largely determined not by Civil Servants but by academically trained

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and academically engaged men. Still, the evil is there, the difficulty is there—that State Control which also involves State regulations and State domination of teaching and curriculum.

Sixthly, are the University teachers' conditions such as lend themselves to the best work? I refer not merely to things like salaries and status, but still more to opportunities of leisure, of travel, of obtaining access to books and to technical equipment. Has the teacher in the Universities always the tools, the time and the strength for the best work of which he is capable?

Seventh, is the relation of the students and their teachers a healthy and invigorating one? Is the system one of spoon-feeding, or, as Professor Geddes described it, shutting your eyes and opening your mouth, or passive reception? Or, is it one of encouraging reaction, criticism and different points of view? Is the examinee who is word-perfect the ideal of the system, or is the man of independent and fresh mind what it aims at?

Eighth, are the students' own organisations and associations very healthy and vigorous? Do they educate one another as much as their teachers educate them, or more? Do they inherit and help to pass on a valuable tradition? Are they allowed and encouraged to shoulder responsibility, to develop judgment, foresight, loyalty, manliness and self-government?

Ninth, and this is my second last point, do the various Universities think and act as if each were a complete whole in itself, having common aims indeed but no community of life and no transfusion of blood? Or, are they ready to let the current of intellectual movement flow freely as between themselves, so far as their times and their funds will permit them?

And, lastly, have the different Universities, besides their main contribution to the progress and welfare of the world, any important bye-product to give it? For example, would the comity of learning tend to the comity

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of nations? Do common interests in science and art and letters actually conduce to common social, economic and political interests? And, will the free flow of academic life help that will for peace on which the stability of civilisation largely rests? If it be so, then the Universities of the world may in this way make not the least notable of their contributions to the welfare of their own people whom they serve and whose highest aspirations and traditions they are set in the land to express.
(Applause.)

As you know, the programme arranged is that Dr MACCRACKEN shall first address us and then Professor OTLET shall address us. After that the meeting will be open for discussion and each speaker thereafter shall have five minutes. The opening speaker is allowed up to thirty minutes and the second speaker up to fifteen minutes, and I hope without the Chairman being called upon to exercise any authority that the speakers will observe these limits. I shall now call upon Dr MacCracken.

Address by Dr HENRY NOBLE MACCRACKEN,
President of Vassar College, Poughkeepsie,
New York.

Dr MACCRACKEN : This section of the Federation, although called Universities, may be taken to include all the activities associated with higher education. Two questions arise which seem to the speaker pertinent as points of departure for the discussion. The first : Is there a place for Universities in the programme of the World Federation? Second : How may the Universities best serve the objects of our Federation.

All education is a unity, and the affiliations of Universities with primary and secondary education are so numerous that to leave them out of consideration in a conference such as this would be like severing the cord that binds a pair of Siamese twins. Both by this would

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suffer dissolution. Even though the Universities, especially with reference to research, have already organised their own international bodies and operate through the International Union of Academies, the International Research Council and other societies, their advice and counsel must still be called upon by this Federation, which has for its primary objective the direction of instruction toward international good-will. There are signs indeed that in many countries the University world needs also increasing direction toward this end. The great Republic of France has just approved a vote establishing an Institute of Intellectual Co-operation, with headquarters in Paris, controlled by the League of Nations, through its commission of intellectual co-operation, the majority of the members of which are University Professors. The United States of America has established an Institute of International Education which serves primarily the Universities and Colleges of the United States, bringing them into contact with their colleagues all over the world. Great Britain, Denmark, and other countries have established University Unions which enable institutions of higher education in their countries to co-operate in opening the facilities of their laboratories and classrooms to students from abroad. The International Federation of University Women is developing a worthy work in improving facilities for residence for women students in foreign countries. These and many other organisations which might be mentioned are already in active operation, and prove that the Universities of the world recognise their duty to international co-operation and are striving to fulfil it. But the very names of the associations which have been mentioned indicate that their purpose is primarily to serve the needs of the Universities and of research rather than the cause of peace. They are not addressed directly to the elimination of those mental attitudes which are productive of international friction. An additional obligation is laid upon the Universities of

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the world to do their part in the great peace movement by carrying out those studies which will have for their objective the establishment of a prophylactic of peace.

Already some steps in this direction have been made. A recent instance is the foundation of a School or College of International Relations at John Hopkins University, U.S.A., and named for the late American Ambassador to Great Britain, Walter Hines Page, whose service in promoting understanding between the country which he represented and the country whose guest he was, has evoked such signal testimonies of esteem in both countries. Such additions to the University organism as this indicate a veritable transformation of the University plan. We have thought of the University until now as the home of pure learning, the repository of disinterested knowledge, the guardian of the great tradition, maintained pure and untouched by current streams, not as a means to some private end, but as an end and good in itself. We now recognise that the University organism is so vital to the health of the commonwealth that the University cannot live to itself alone. It must both nourish and be nourished by the commonwealth in which it is situated. I am sure no service of a modern University to its world can be greater than the service of truth in international affairs.

What is truth? We are not here to argue the philosophical question, but we will all admit that whatever truth is, what we have in this mundane life of ours is propaganda. It is impossible to avoid it. All of us present here in approaching the question of the service of the Universities toward international good-will, approach it from certain propositions, national in their origin and local in their growth. The very aim of this Conference is essentially propaganda. A propaganda of good-will it is true, one which we believe to be worthy, but nevertheless a persuasion, rather than an exposition of impersonal facts. It is, then, first of all the function of the University

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in the field of international good-will to present a propaganda of truth. The greatest American institution of scientific research, the Carnegie Corporation of New York, has realised this obligation and given effect to it on behalf of American Universities by organising a search for the truth about the world war. A University Professor, Dr Shotwell, has been made director of this great enterprise, which grows ever vaster with increasing research until it now seems doubtful whether a complete history can ever be made. A similar effort is that of Secretary Herbert Hoover, who, as trustee of Leland Stanford University, California, has deposited within the library of that institution, hundreds of thousands of documents dealing with the war. They are so numerous that they occupy already an extensive new wing of that building. It will be generations before the materials thus obtained by Secretary Hoover are exhausted by research workers in the cause of truth with respect to the war. The third illustration is the establishment of the Journal of Foreign Affairs, edited by a Professor of Harvard University, Dr Archibald C. Coolidge. Here under university auspices, is offered for the first time to the American world, so ignorant of international affairs and so utterly untrained in the ways of diplomacy, an open *forum* concerning world events.

The second direction which can be taken by the Universities in the promotion of International understanding is a form of propaganda which seeks to offer to students from other lands a true picture of life in their own country. The twentieth century will one day be recorded as remarkable for the vast increase in student migration which has come to pass. Great centres of culture, such as Pekin, Calcutta, Rome, Berlin, Prague, Vienna, London, Edinburgh, Paris, and New York, are now world capitals of education. The migration of students to the United States has increased since the War far beyond any previous record. About 10,000 University

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students annually seek our shores. Allowance is made for them in our Immigration Act by special provision, the Government thus encouraging foreign visitors who come for study. While in many cases the primary impulse for associating travel with study is the pursuit of knowledge under the best conditions, yet always a strong secondary motive, and often the dominant one, is the desire to study from a different angle, to appreciate the ways and thought of another people, to adventure in the realms of the mind as well as upon strange shores. This movement, particularly natural to youth, is one that must greatly increase, since it is approved by education. Self-contained continents, such as China and the United States, are remarkable for the extent to which students of one section seek education in another section of the same country. To cite a typical instance in the United States. Dartmouth College, in the State of New Hampshire, enrolls only 10 per cent. of its students whose residence is in that State. While, on the other hand, although there are only two colleges in this State, only 10 per cent. of the students from New Hampshire, seeking higher education, go to Dartmouth. This role of the University in promoting a national good-will among the several parts of the nation which are often divided by climate, by industry, and even by language and custom from each other, was foreseen by George Washington, who desired to found a national University in the City of Washington, and bequeathed money for that purpose. The national University was never realised, but in a sense every great University in the United States has fulfilled Washington's hopes. It would be difficult to over-estimate the value of the friendships formed in University life among students of all parts of the country, in preventing the extension of prejudices which are born of ignorance. The natural next step must be the development of the national University into the international University. This next step has already been taken in part. The great and famous

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Universities of Germany generously received American students during the half-century just closed. The Sorbonne and other great Universities of France have long been centres of world culture. Oxford University and its sister institutions of Great Britain have been at times so crowded with foreigners that there seemed scarcely room for native sons to study. All of these foreign students have, through the agency of the university, obtained a certain point of view and a certain knowledge of the life and ways of thinking of another land which have been of infinite value and which, upon the whole, have contributed toward international good-will.

It is, however, true that in many cases our Universities have not realised the obligations which this great privilege entailed. They have admitted foreign students to classes and examinations without offering reciprocal hospitality. Students from foreign countries have lived under conditions of great privation, and have often, because of the lack of a true welcome, imbibed prejudice, bitterness and resentment against the land which they visited. Some Universities are, however, beginning to be conscious of this failure in organisation, and already in such institutions as the International House at New York City, the Students' Home in Prague, the Committees of Welcome in France, to name no others, are endeavouring to extend the hand of friendship to foreign students, and what is much more important, offer them by means of wider acquaintance a truer social picture of the land in which they are visitors, so that they may form juster conclusions from their experience.

The fourth step remains still to be taken by the Universities, that is the inoculation of an international outlook in every course of study. Life in a national University ought not to be a narrowing or nationalising experience. But on the contrary ought to make the student conscious of his duties as a citizen of the world. This can be done without any impairment of

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his patriotism as a citizen of his own land. The Universities must go further, however, and must introduce into the departments concerned with the social sciences courses of study which bear most definitely upon international problems. For example, a most vexed question to-day is that of racial superiority. Yet very little investigation has thus far been made by Universities or scientists in the field of racial psychology and racial physiology. Most of the numerous books written the last few years are based upon surmise, prejudice, or upon a few isolated special statistics prepared originally for another purpose and wrenched out of their true function in the application by some propagandist to prove his private theory. The infinite harm done by some of these books, and in this respect it must be admitted that the white race is most to blame, can only be appreciated by those who have followed waves of intellectual reaction which have appeared in civilisation since the War. It is the obligation of the University to increase our knowledge in these respects and to change prejudice into appreciation. There is a field of international sociology which travellers have realised for many years, but in which very little serious work has been done. It will be, the speaker ventures to predict, the next great step of the science of psychology.

Instruction in history and the arts from the international rather than the national point of view has been rapidly proceeding. The last twenty years have witnessed a return toward a synthesis of knowledge as opposed to the period of extreme isolation which preceded it. Scholars now realise that it is absurd to teach the history of English literature, for example, in complete unconsciousness of the fact that a similar development was proceeding in French literature, with influence reciprocal at every step of the way. To synthesise, and thus to broaden the aspects of national education, is one of the most valuable functions which the University can perform. Not to prolong this paper indefinitely, these suggestions may serve

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to indicate that Universities have a definite place in a general programme of education for international goodwill.

The second question remains to be discussed : How may the Universities best serve the objects of our Federation?

The suggestions made under this head are based upon the premise that whatever direct aid to teachers interested in international good-will can be given by the Universities, will be the best service to the Federation. We ought to encourage, first of all, members of University staffs to join national associations of teachers, since the influence of the Universities in the last analysis is only the influence of groups of individuals. Moreover, it is only when such interested individuals are aware of the scope of our Federation that they can direct the facilities of the Universities to serve us. We ought to urge all the members of this Conference who are University Professors to carry back to their institutions and to the national associations of Universities a need to incorporate in their faculty education and in their courses for the instruction of teachers, the international viewpoint. No matter what the subject taught, the teacher should be instructed in the international origin of science, the mutual interdependence of research workers and the complicated inter-weaving of the contributions which have been made in recent times by scholars all over the world. Wherever theories of education are dwelled upon, and particularly where nationalist ideals of education are discussed, emphasis should be placed upon the circumstances which produced these theories. Environment, the social order, the status of religion and politics and similar influences, should be more fully discussed than they are at present in modern courses in the history of education. In order to make the international point of view concrete, provision should be made by Universities for facilities for foreign students in the normal courses. The system of University exchange

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of students is well advanced, but the opportunities afforded teachers for study abroad are few indeed. These should be greatly multiplied, and we would urge the Universities to secure funds from both public and private sources to enable teachers to pursue their studies under foreign auspices. When the question of the geography and history of the coast of Asia is under discussion, for example, the best of maps would not be as valuable as the experience of a single Japanese teacher in the classroom. To prepare properly the Universities for the introduction of foreign students in normal courses there should be set up in each country an institute of intellectual co-operation. This Conference ought, in the speaker's opinion to adopt resolutions in general terms approving the work of the Institute of International Education in the United States; the Institute of Intellectual Co-operation recently voted in France, and all similar efforts which have as their aim to correlate the facilities which educational institutions can afford to foreigners. We should urge these institutes, however, to enlarge their resources and to include as a primary objective the extension of these facilities to school teachers. The need of aid to the teaching body is certainly not a less important factor than that of subventions to research, if we are to consider the subject in terms of to-day. The modern University always tends to think in terms either of yesterday or of to-morrow. It is for the teachers to insist that they shall also think in terms of to-day. We should urge the Universities of the world also to extend their summer courses and their vacation institutes to teachers from abroad. To this end, if a permanent secretariat of this Federation shall be set up, there should be included a University Secretary, whose object it would be to organise the calendar of summer institutes in such a way that groups of foreign students could be routed to different countries in different years. Beginnings have been made along this line in several countries, of which perhaps the notable instance is the

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scholarships provided by the Rockefeller Foundation for students of public health, especially for European countries. If our Federation is really to function, however, in this field a great extension of this practice should be provided.

The Universities can also be of the greatest service in aiding tours of teachers and students. Visits to the great Universities of the world must always be one of the most attractive features of travel, and such visits can be made far more instructive if University authorities will welcome such guests not only with a friendly hand, but with descriptions of the institution and its history.

The custom has recently been inaugurated of sending groups of University students as visitors to foreign countries to discuss matters of international interest and to present as attractively as possible the point of view of the national student body. These visits have been confined to Universities in the country visited. They should be extended, in the speaker's opinion, to teachers' institutes and to faculties of pedagogy. In this connection it would be well if occasionally such teams were made up of teachers from normal schools. Members should be thoroughly conversant with the subjects to be discussed, and should be chosen only after keen competition in ability to present their subjects and in public address.

In no respect can the Universities be of greater assistance than in the revision of text books. This Federation should most earnestly solicit the co-operation of national associations of historians, geographers and teachers of philosophy, ethics and the political and social sciences to prepare for statements of the ideals that should govern the writing of text-books in these fields, for school children, and introduce into their reviews of new text-books in these fields, as they appear, a consideration of their value from the international point of view. The majority of scholars in these fields of science are members of Uni-

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versity faculties. They alone can help us in driving from the field the prejudiced text of racial or national antagonism. The speaker would urge that this Federation request the associations named to appoint Committees having as their function to report to their bodies the development from year to year of this ideal in the work of their colleagues.

But the modern Universities are not merely the great teaching bodies. They are also the repositories of learning. More and more great libraries tend to be associated with the great teaching institutions. We must therefore look to the Universities to provide for teachers centres of international study and reading. We ought to urge our University Associations to make special provision in their library funds for the establishment of institutes in various languages where the culture of different countries can be studied. A recent tour made by the speaker among the Universities of Central Europe revealed how defective even some of the best University libraries are in resources of research afforded in other languages. In the United States, for example, where considerable means have been at the disposal of Universities for the purchase of books, the predominance of French and German scholarship on the shelves of libraries has resulted in the almost total exclusion of many valuable works written by the scholars of other nations. It is taken for granted in most American colleges that a knowledge of French and German is sufficient for all practical purposes of research work. The great worlds of the Oriental languages, Spanish and the Slavic tongues, are practically non-existent. The case is even worse in the Universities of Central Europe with respect to English. In such circumstances what opportunity has a teacher for pursuing studies at the University and gaining any real conception of the degree to which learning is dependent upon the scholars of every nation?

Supplementary to this resolution we ought to pool the

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work in international bibliography carried on in Brussels and the work of the commission for Intellectual Co-operation of the League of Nations in reviewing from these wide sources of information the development of scientific research in every land. The project of a World University referred to this commission at the last session of this Conference received full discussion in our meeting. As the preliminary stages of our organisation are not familiar to the session of this commission we have no resolution to lay before this body. The present speaker believes in the project of a World University if by it is meant in the mediaeval sense, an international guild of scholars, teachers and students, moving freely from one capital of the world's culture to another in the search for truth. The funds which may be at the disposal of this Federation are too precious to be spent in bricks and mortar for the erection of a World University in any one place, or in any group of places. To paraphrase reverently the Scriptural phrase: while we are saying, "Lo here, lo there," the University of the world will have escaped us and found a truer spiritual centre elsewhere. The kingdom of learning is in the midst of us and the University of the world will be established, not by resolution nor by buildings, but wherever the human mind does its work better than elsewhere. It should be the function of this Federation in part to map from generation to generation this progress of the world University and to spread the knowledge of it to every teacher in the world. Nor can the speaker conceive of any greater mission of this Federation than the development amongst teachers of that sense of solidarity which exists among University students. If we make of our Federation what it is possible to accomplish, the teachers of the world will one day join in *Gaudemus*.

THE CHAIRMAN: I have now to call upon Professor OTLET to give us an address.

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Address by Professor PAUL OTLET, Brussels,
General Secretary of the Union of International
Associations.

Professor OTLET: I am going to try to put before you some impressions of a World University.

In the present state of the world, it is essential that we should have an International University and we must all do our best to create such an important organ of international life.

I. WHY.

The last great war has emphasised the fact that the ideas and feelings of all the peoples of the world are very closely connected with each other. Humanity's life has ceased to be local since thousands and thousands of years; it is no longer regional since centuries and centuries and it has become international with increasing velocity, for the last fifty years. Nature, economics and politics are interdependent and so are morality, philosophy and religion. This interdependence has, to a great extent, remained uncontrolled, and, therefore, unco-ordinated and chaotic, which has often given rise to very distressful consequences; but now, it is gradually getting organised. The importance of international interdependence is obvious, if we remember that, before the war, international trade amounted to £72,000,000 and it very often happened that about half a million of emigrants left for America, the same year; on the other hand, there are now more than 4000 international associations which, since 1922, held on the average, more than 200 international meetings, every year.

The last decades were chiefly characterised by the amazingly rapid development of science: Man, Nature and Society were carefully investigated; Universities, Scientific Institutions and Libraries became more and more numerous, while they, at the same time were better

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equipped and rendered more effective and useful: there are now more than 200 big Universities and a considerable number of high schools with more than 25,000 professors, providing education for more than half a million of students. Synthesis is required more and more and it will be the task of the twentieth century to achieve the analytical work which was started by the nineteenth century.

An intense movement, tending to co-ordinate work and energy, came into existence, and all activities, labour and industry and now even science were affected by it. Experience made us realise the power of efficiency, co-operation, and organisation; we had to learn that theory and practice are not completely distinct, independent and parallel, but interdependent and complementary, as every new practical activity gives rise to new constructive ideas which are apt to affect our practice; and, on the other hand, every new idea can, if conveyed by appropriate channels, affect our action of which it is, to some extent, a prefiguration. This is the reason why organisation and method are gradually taking a more and more prominent place in the sphere of intellectual activities and require permanent appropriate institutions.

The development of international life, of science and education, of method and efficiency with regard to theory and practice: these three classes of facts, which are so very characteristic of the present time, emphatically urge upon us the absolute necessity of establishing the World University.

II. HISTORY.

Shortly after the great war, the Union of International Associations called together a conference to deliberate how it might be possible to create an International University. The Union had been founded in Brussels, in 1910 and about 200 International Associations were

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affiliated to it. After the armistice, the Union grouped a certain number of permanent institutions into an international centre and proposed to the League of Nations that they should give orderly structure to intellectual activities, according to the same methods which had just been applied in organising manual labour. The 1920 Conference agreed to a statute providing that an International University should be created, that a first experiment should be made in the shape of International Summer Courses; International University Meetings and Summer Courses were accordingly started at the International centre, every summer, for three years.

The same idea, however, was partly realised in different countries, as some National Universities started holiday courses for foreigners, and owing to the good offices of the University Department of the International Co-operation Commission of the League of Nations, exchanges of professors and students were arranged; on the other hand, it happened that Universities in different countries, federated into a Union, with a view to co-ordinate intellectual activities, and an Institute of International Education was founded in New York.

A World Confederation of students and an International Association of University Women have been founded; many International Associations, e.g., The International League of Women, the International Association of Co-operative Societies, the International Commission of Relief for the Children, the International Association for Workmen's Education, etc., arrange international meetings, lasting about a week or a fortnight and specialising in different subjects. In the East, three International Universities have been created: Tagore's International University, the Jewish University of Jerusalem (which is very international) and the Oriental University of Moscow. The University Travel Association is busy equipping a ship which is to enable 450 American students to take a voyage round the world, which is going to

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last for about eight months; and we all know that a similar initiative was recently taken by the Australian cadets. There is now a World University (Welt Universität) in Vienna, a high school for international studies (école des hautes études internationales) in Paris and an International Law Academy, at The Hague. Holiday courses are arranged by the International Association of Students for the League of Nations, Academies have recently worked at a scheme relating to the foundations of an International Art Institute, with a view to provide artistic education to young students; and, independently of the World Federation of Education Associations, there are now more than thirty-six international organisations, concerned with general education and specialised instruction.

All these facts clearly show how very necessary for the world it is, at the present moment, to establish a Central Institution, a World University, which should be in a position to co-ordinate all intellectual activities and enhance their efficiency.

III. OBJECT AND AIMS OF THE WORLD UNIVERSITY.

The International University or World University should aim at federating all intellectual activities connected with University education and group them into a central institution, a vast world movement with a view to impart to students universal knowledge and culture, and therefore, it is essential:

(1) That professors and teachers from all countries should be invited to come and impart to students the best of the knowledge they have acquired within the sphere of the branch of learning they have been specially investigating, whatever may be the stage of development, which this particular branch has reached at the present moment.

That students from all countries should be invited to come and complete their education with regard to

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the international and comparative aspects of the most difficult problems and burning questions of the day.

(2) That the International University should consist of a central institution, specialised and localised branches, autonomous affiliated institutions and have a University tour systematically organised with the help of the different Universities.

(3) That it should enable students to get an insight into international economics and politics and international methods in general, particularly those who are intending to enter diplomatic or consular service.

(4) That the International University should endeavour to imbue scientific researches with the spirit of synthesis and correlation.

IV. ORGANISATION.

The institution which is to answer this purpose should be organised on a federative basis, so that higher schools and Universities should be able to collaborate with the big International Associations which are interested in education and willing to provide education within the limits of their own province.

The League of Nations has been asked to agree to a proposal relating to the foundation of an International University, and in July 1920, the Council declared for it. The International Commission of International Co-operation, however, decided, in May 1925, that they should decline the offer which had been made by the Spanish Government to that effect. Some people rather deplored this decision, but it is perhaps better that the International University should be an autonomous institution, just as independent of politics and authorities as thought itself, of which it is the supreme expression.

As the League of Nations are not intending to create an International University, it is the duty of International Associations now to take the matter in hand.

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V. THE MUNDANEUM.

It is not only necessary that the International University should be properly organised, but it is also essential that it should be surrounded by a sympathetic atmosphere, in agreement with the general spirit of the institution; that is why it should be established in a well equipped international centre, so that it may be in a position to group complementary institutions. The Unions of International Associations have already made plans for the establishment of such an intellectual centre, the so-called MUNDANEUM, which should aim at representing a graphic synthesis of the whole world, and at the same time co-operate by co-ordination in accelerating the evolution process of the higher spheres of intellectuality.

The MUNDANEUM should be a concrete permanent international institution, continually at the synthesis and co-ordination of intellectual activities and contributing to the diffusion of knowledge in the shape of literature and lectures, theory and practice. Those who built cathedrals in the Middle Ages, relied on future generations to finish their work; so, we cannot be expected to reach our aim immediately and the Mundaneum will have to pass through different stages of development.

The Mundaneum should first of all be established in a sufficient number of provisional buildings to shelter collections and enable the organisers to make a push to start the whole movement; afterwards, the Mundaneum which is to express the central idea of the whole organisation, should be definitely erected; it would consist of four different departments. (1) The University. (2) The Museum, devoted to visualising the ideas and exhibiting a synthesis of universal knowledge, referring to Man, Nature and Society, the universal history of mankind, the universal geography of all nations, and so on. (3) The Documentation Department, consisting of a World

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Library, a Universal Bibliographical Repertory and a Universal Filing Encyclopaedia. (4) The general headquarters of the big International Associations and their Union, large lecturing halls for their congresses, and rooms for their offices and institutes. A certain number of rooms should also be reserved for the different nations and the permanent delegates of the International Organisations. In the gardens, arrangements should be made for open air lectures and study circles. Professors, delegates and students should be invited to reside at a hostel situated within the Mundaneum precincts and connected with a club.

Later on, every nation should be asked to erect her own "PAVILION" and every art, science or technique should, in the same way, possess its own "HOME," every great period of historical evolution, its own "RECONSTRUCTION," so that the Mundaneum, may, in the course of years, become, as it were, the recognised international intellectual centre of the world, treasuring up all the intellectual riches of mankind, celebrating the Past, reflecting the Present, and anticipating the splendour of the Future.

The Mundaneum has been provisionally established in a certain number of buildings belonging to the Brussels Palais Mondial and has already reached the first stage of its development. International Summer Courses have been organised three times already; the International Museum has been started and is at present composed of sixty rooms, containing more than 25,000 documents; the International Library possesses more than 130,000 volumes and the International Institute of Bibliography, which has been recognised by the League of Nations as the world centre of bibliography, has already accumulated more than 13,000,000 classified cards; the Union of International Associations has organised many big congresses and furnished the different International Associations with rooms for their offices.

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It is suggested that we should inaugurate the definite edifice in 1930, that is about ten years after the world started being reconstructed; it is expected that enthusiastic propaganda, will have by this time, made people realise the necessity of creating a big CITY-CENTRE, so that it may then be possible to lay the first stone. There is every reason to hope, as the present world is accelerating its course, and general welfare is going to increase, that the present peace is durable. It has been proposed in America, that the American people should use a moderate fraction of the enormous amount of money, which they have to receive in payment of the loans raised in war-time by the allied governments, to create a big foundation devoted to the pursuit of a noble object. Well, what object could answer their purpose better than the creation of an International Intellectual Centre, testifying in a permanent and concrete way, that mankind in the twentieth century is tired of destruction and has, at last, started constructing.

VI. CONCLUSION—APPEAL.

I beg to propose, that we should make use of the powerful instrument called International University to organise international relations between the peoples of the different countries of the world and prepare the genesis of a new world. I suggest that this University should be established in the very centre of the Institutions organising intellectual activities, so that it may gradually develop and become, in the course of years, an International City, grouping all permanent institutions, connected with international life.

And now I beg to appeal to the World Federation of Education Associations; I know that you are far better able than any other people to realise the necessity and importance of the scheme and suggestions. I have the honour to communicate to you, as I read in your invita-

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tion that you wanted your congress to be an organisation to represent comprehensively the forces working for International Education, International Understanding, Good Will, Co-operation and Justice; that your Conference was to start currents of influence which flowing to the most distant parts of the world are destined to change the attitude of educational workers towards world problems.

In San Francisco already all delegates expressed their desire to help in promoting international friendship between the different nations of the world; oriental delegates decided that they would support the international education movement, while Americans wanted to intensify international relations between America and Europe.

This is why I particularly wish to make an appeal to the American delegates in this Congress, as, without America's co-operation, it is quite impossible to organise an International University deserving that name. Americans have confidence in education; they do not only conceive great schemes, but they, at the same time, are in a position to execute them with the utmost accuracy and precision; they believe in co-operation and never hesitate to start any undertaking whatever, as soon as they realise that their ideal can be put into practice; on the other hand, they possess all the more riches now, as the last world war has put Europe into a very difficult financial position.

I hope that the ideas and statements I have had the honour to communicate to you, will largely contribute to the support of the following motion, which I beg to bring forward in the name of the Union of International Associations :

"That the World Federation of Education Associations as well as all Educational Organisations, should give their support and contribute to the establishment of a big World University;

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*"That the Institutions of the Palais Mondial, which have for so many years acted as pioneers in that direction, may be accepted as a suitable basis, that all these Institutions, which are absolutely non-political, may be developed into a big permanent International Intellectual Centre; The Mundaneum."**

Mrs LOWE GORDON, New York, then addressed the meeting in terms similar to those in her address to the "International Relations" section. See p. —714.

M. PETIT-DUTAILLIS, Directeur de l'Office National des Universités, addressed the meeting in French, his remarks being interpreted by M. A. DESCLOS. He said, M. Petit-Dutaillis has explained to you the machinery that we have set up in France for dealing with the question of international relations from the point of view of University life and University study. The machinery that has been created comprises as its main feature a series of French institutes that have been formed in different countries. Now, the principle upon which these institutes have been formed is the principle of strict reciprocity. It is not based at all upon the idea of propaganda. It is based upon the idea of exchange.

One of our principal institutes has been formed in London. This Institute has been founded by a committee which in itself is an international committee, because it comprises a certain number of French nationals and a certain number, and an important number, of British nationals. The President of the Committee is a Britisher. The London Institute, of course, teaches things concerning France mainly—French thought and French science—and literature is exposed by Frenchmen generally, but it works in close touch with the London University. Professors

*A letter from the Confédération Internationale des Étudiants, Brussels, received too late for consideration by the Section, urged the World Conference to lend its support to the realisation of the project of a World University.

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from the London University come and teach in our great Institute, and students from London University are sent there to follow a certain number of courses. We send over a certain number of French students who come over to England to study the language and the literature of England and then receive a certain number of courses at the Institute itself, and they are sent by care of the Institute to the London Institute to follow such other courses as may prove useful to their studies. So there, you see, we have established what I hope will be considered as a really international effort, a section of international Universities in a limited way.

In Madrid we have also an Institute. This Institute is also French, set up by us, but it receives Spanish Professors, and there is a special section which is like our school in Rome, or like our school in Athens, which is destined to receive French students who go to Madrid to study Spanish art specially and Spanish literature, and who work there and who are guided in their studies by a resident staff in the place. It is set up by the University. At Bucharest we have an Institute of Roumanian studies which is very similar to the Institute created at Madrid. At Warsaw and at Florence there are also two Institutes, also on the same principles. So you see that these are Institutes for reciprocal interchange between the nations concerned, our nation on the one hand and the nation with which the Institute is attached on the other hand.

Over and above that, our Government has given a good many fellowships to foreign students who come to France, and already many years before the War they came to France and attended courses either at our High Technical Institute or at our Universities. We received a great number. We are able to receive every year in our Universities a considerable number of Professors from the Universities of pretty well every country in the world. I must say that they are always received

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very sympathetically indeed, and their lectures are always sure to draw a considerable number of auditors. So that while recognising the very wise and generous idea of Professor Otlek of setting up a World University, we have already made in our modest way a step in that direction, and we have already begun to realise something of the ideal that has been put before you to-day.

Mr LHIVOIN V. SIMITCH, Serbia: When listening to Professor Geddes I found it very difficult to say to what century he really belongs. Really he does not belong to the ancients of Greece, although he does seem to think that we need more Plato in our Universities. For the moment I thought that perhaps Professor Geddes might belong to the age of the Renaissance, but the chief characteristic about the age of the Renaissance is that it says that the golden age of the Universities is in the past and that what we have to do is to revive the past. What saves Professor Geddes from being put in the Renaissance Period is the fact that he puts some question marks on his chart of knowledge. In other words, it means that Professor Geddes is open to the fact that there are new possibilities in the future. I want to draw your attention to one point in his speech which, I think, is of enormous importance, and it is his call for a greater co-ordination in science in the Universities.

If we are to escape the danger of some of the Professors who have not done so yet, and give up what I might call the older outlook of knowledge which makes a Professor say, "My subject is the most important subject, my science is the most important science," they should rather take up a broader outlook of knowledge and say that the centre of importance is not in any one important subject but that all subjects are important, because the truth of the universe is not a single truth but a system of truths which covers all the interests and facts of the universe. I think it is impor-

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tant that we should recognise the inter-dependence of science. We have been speaking in this Conference about the inter-dependence of nations. I quite agree with that, but the inter-dependence of science is even greater than the inter-dependence of nations. I will take one example from the history of science. Physiology, as you all know, made a discovery with regard to the circulation of the blood, but although this physiological discovery of the circulation of the blood was a very valuable discovery for medicine, medicine could not advance at once. She had to wait for the development of chemistry in order to profit by this discovery of physiology.

If you would allow me two minutes I would like to say something about the relation of Serbia to the British Universities. During the War the whole of Serbia was conquered and, therefore, many Serbian youths left Serbia. They went through terrible hardships, young boys between fifteen and nineteen, such hardships that they ceased to feel anything. They became indifferent altogether. They thought there was no value in life or anything. These boys had become sceptics. A number of these boys came to Great Britain during the War. Some of them entered the British Universities and they found that the British Universities had a form of values. They found that the British Universities had a form of higher values. They found in the British Universities philosophy and science. Being here, they spent altogether three years in these British Universities, and they found a system of values in their souls, a system at the top of which there was a belief in the value of human endeavour for the good and the true and the beautiful. (Applause.)

Dr MACGILLIVRAY, University of Glasgow: I am sure you feel I do not require to apologise for not taking the Chair this afternoon. In Dr Duff I have a substitute who is far more able to speak on this subject than I am. I have followed with great interest the proceedings of this

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afternoon. I have been present at many of the sections, but I think that the papers this afternoon have a relevancy to the matter in hand and a relevancy to the big body of which we are all members, the World Federation of Education Associations, that has not always distinguished the contributions in other sections.

I do feel in regard to the proceedings of this Federation that if we are to have full influence we must see that the schemes which they bring up for presentation to this body square with the facts and the conditions of life, that they are not merely an unsubstantiality. We must see that these things are brought down from heaven to earth and are made fit for consideration of human beings and not of super-men. We have had an extremely interesting contribution, first of all, from Dr Duff himself. He put before us a bill of fare that would occupy us not for two hours but for a whole week, a contribution, however, that should give us all furiously to think. There are many of these questions I would like to take up myself, but the one that has the most bearing on the subject of any is that of co-education. It seems to me that if we wish to promote world goodwill you must establish sex goodwill in every country in the world, and you must have co-education of the sexes at every stage. I readily grant, however, that that is not the general view, that the only upholders of this view, as far as I know, are Scotland and America; and if Scotland and America—the United States, I mean—were whole-hearted in this matter, I would not despair of what is being done in these countries to-day being universal to-morrow. I do fear that in both countries there is a movement against the co-education movement. Not only in schools but in the Universities there is a tendency to demand the separation of the sexes. I need not say that this demand in every case comes from the parents. If we took a plebiscite of the pupils and students, they would all vote, I am certain, for co-education.

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I was specially interested also in the contribution by Professor MacCracken. It gives one confidence in the future of this Federation to know that Professor MacCracken is one of the leading figures in the inner movement that has originated and continued to direct this great movement. At any rate, it gives me very great heartening indeed that his sanity is at the service of this movement. The one point upon which I would like to move is his demand for the solidarity of what you might call the whole teaching profession. Now, for that solidarity you must have throughout the countries of the world a mobility throughout all the grades and sections of the teaching profession, from the lowest grade up to the highest University degree, and I do claim that in England and Scotland through the recent passing of our Superannuation Bill an immense step has been made towards giving the utmost mobility to all men within the profession to go forward from one branch to another, without fear that in doing so there will be a loss of status, a loss of salary, or a loss of superannuation benefit. These have now all been to a very large extent accepted as unchanged. Service in the University will be accepted by the school. Service in the school will be accepted by the University, and so forth. I think that is of very great value.

Then with regard to Professor Otlet's contribution, I am sure all of us must recognise the enthusiasm and the devotion that he brings to the explanation and the propagation of this big idea of his. We in Scotland are not afraid of ideas because they are new. I am not afraid at all, for this reason, because in Scotland, more than in any other country in the world perhaps, it might be said that the vision of past dreams is being constantly woven in the daily fabric of our daily life. But I regret that I cannot accept without questioning this idea of a World University, because, after all, what is a University? Is a University not to be given up to all classes of men

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without distinction of country or race or anything else? All our Universities are, it seems to me, World Universities. They exist for the pursuit of pure and disinterested knowledge, or for the pure and disinterested pursuit of knowledge, do they not? And as regards those who are the teachers, as practical men, naturally having experience of men, is it not their ambition to follow knowledge like a sinking star beyond the utmost verge of human thought? That is my conception of a University. That is the conception of a University that we have in Scotland, and I do not see what more you can get out of any so-called World University, because, wherever you plant it (you must plant it somewhere), you must give it a local habitation and a name, and it will take its colour and its atmosphere from that place, and it will take its colour and its atmosphere also from the teachers who are engaged in it. We, all teachers, are not able to see the whole of truth. We can only see a certain portion through heredity and environment, and we cannot get rid of these by calling the place in which we work a World University or anything else. However, I do not wish by any means to quench the genuine fire and enthusiasm of Professor Otlet. I do not wish to do that. I am certain that, like the flame in the Temple of Vesta, it will not be extinguished by me or by any other one.

THE CHAIRMAN: We have time for only one further speaker, and by his own request, last but not least, it will be Professor GEDDES.

Professor PATRICK GEDDES: My opening address was necessarily broad and general and a historic survey of the Universities past and present, and as little of the University of the future as possible. But since you have been hearing much of the possibilities of the University, let us consider now how we can carry these further in detail. To use an American idiom, how can we proceed to deliver the goods? The Chairman propounded at the

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outset no less than ten important points, with which I feel we are all in agreement. I might add a word by recalling how Professor Otlet, while by no means monopolising the libraries of the world anywhere, is the very widest centraliser in the sense of having directed the most colossal library in the world. So that while Edinburgh has two or three million books in its National Library, Professor Otlet represents twelve or thirteen million references in that way. So in the same way with International Associations. International Associations exist everywhere. They are very eminent in Switzerland, as the Red Cross and other things, but still on the other hand Professor Otlet in Brussels is connected with the largest network and clearing-house of International Associations of the World. I have heard of men of extraordinary organising genius, and Professor Otlet is one of them. He has no authority over the International Associations. He does not dictate their policy, but he keeps the bankers clearing-house as it were. Just as all the Banks of any State deal with each other, so we should recognise the life-long experience and the genius of Professor Otlet.

I feel I have nothing to speak on at all, so let me ask if we could not focus our many points which have come up. There seems to me a very simple method of doing it. May I submit to this Congress that it would make our Conference very efficient if several of the resolutions of 1923 could be extended so as more fully to admit specific University objects and recognise University endeavours. I submit the following as slight additions to existing resolutions on page seven of this well-known hand-book, which I presume everybody has.

Resolution No. Seven: "That a representative committee be appointed to utilise and advance inquiry into Universities, into their history, their contemporary developments and possibilities, and to investigate the question of the establishment of a World University."

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Resolution No. Four, page six : " That steps should be taken to inquire into the inter-relations and increasing unification of the various fields of knowledge and research, and toward the fuller and clearer co-ordination of subjects of instruction accordingly, with endeavour to bring about a greater unification of scientific terminology."

The sciences are too difficult by their difficult terminology, and it takes a great sociologist or biologist to explain himself intelligently to plain folk as he should be able to do. I am asking in the previous case for an inquiry into the Universities in general, embracing all the points raised by the Chairman and Professor MacCracken, and similarly we should throw ourselves into that endeavour of consideration which has been so often spoken of in these meetings and which is certainly in the air. Finally, I would propose that Resolution No. Six, on page seven, should read :

" That a universal library bureau be established to inquire into methods of bibliographers and their possible advances, which might ultimately be connected with a World or International University."

I submit, therefore, that these resolutions, unless you object, should be passed on in the usual way.

THE CHAIRMAN : I think we are all extremely indebted to Professor Geddes both for his interesting contribution and for his helpful emendations on the present rules under which the Conference is acting. Now, I think, you will agree that we should pass on these most useful suggestions or alterations of the rules.

It was agreed to remit the proposals made by Mrs Lowe Gordon, Professor Otlet and Professor Geddes for the consideration of the plenary session.

A cordial vote of thanks was accorded to the Chairman for presiding and to Professor William M' Clelland for his services as secretary of the group.

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An International Library Scheme.

Contributed by Mr JAMES A. S. BARRETT, M.A.,
Peebles, Scotland. Ex-Librarian, University
Library, Dundee.

“ Since I can never see your face,
And never shake you by the hand,
I send my soul through time and space
To greet you. You will understand.”

Introductory.

This scheme is designed to promote the better organisation of brain workers; to overcome the disadvantages of students in rural areas; to provide facilities for co-operation, specialisation and easier access to the literature of a subject, with expert advice thereon. It is capable of being adapted to a single subject or department, or to all; and, further, it could be adopted in any one city or country, or, linked up with similar agencies in other countries, acquire an international organisation and influence.

Initial Organisation.

The Bureau, preferably situated in a University town, would, at its inception, comprise an office, a Librarian, and an Assistant. It would have a list of voluntary Expert Consultants on specific subjects, adapted to the requirements of the district, and increased as circumstances demanded. It would possess, or (in a University town) have access to, as many works of Reference as possible as Library Catalogues, Subject Indexes, Guides to Study, Bibliographies, Periodical Indexes, Publishers' Lists, and Second-hand Booksellers' Lists. Thus Teachers, rural Students and Readers, desiring advice in their studies, or wishing to purchase a volume second-

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hand, or provincial Librarians unable to answer the questions of their Readers, could consult the Bureau (on payment, perhaps, of a small fee) and have the volume or journal which they desired to purchase reported to them, or advice and detailed references sent to them. The Expert Consultants would be referred to only when the Bureau Librarian could not himself supply the information.

In this way rural Teachers and Students would be put into touch with Academic Authorities, and have the benefit of expert advice in the selection, actual purchase, and study of the literature (books and technical journals) on any subject in which they are interested. This would greatly facilitate specialised study in rural areas, and would promote the sale and usefulness of books. It would extend and deepen the influence of such schemes as, *e.g.*, the Carnegie Rural Libraries, by linking a Teacher with the Student, a Librarian with the Reader, and a book with the purchaser, all over the country.

Extension of the Scheme.

The Bureau could register the names of those engaged in studying, writing, or editing, in order to promote helpful co-operation and to prevent duplication. It could commission topical bibliographies, to further the study of new aspects of a subject, or arrange for the preparation of bibliographies of local or general interest. It could recommend translating, typewriting, and indexing agencies, or itself supervise such work, with help in the checking of references, the correction of style, and the reading of proofs. It could arrange for the loan of costly library volumes or technical journals, or do the requisite research work therein. It could report the publication of notable books or articles in other languages to students of a particular subject.

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International Development.

On an international basis, it could arrange for the writing of books and articles by Experts on any subject, and for their translation and circulation at home or abroad —thus, ultimately, becoming the instrument of a true Internationalism in Education (and in all subjects comprised by it), its history, methods, statistics, and aims. Its ultimate effect would be to promote specialisation—intensive study—in all subjects, on an international basis, and with international co-operation.

TEACHER TRAINING.

Report by The Secretary, Mr WILLIAM ROY,
Scotland.

The trend of the discussion showed that there was general agreement that the teacher should not be expected to be the missionary of any "ism" or doctrine but that he should prepare his pupils for life and living: in the work of training teachers there are certain well-defined principles which should be kept clearly in view, viz.:—

(1) That the cultural standard should be a high one, viz., University Graduation or its equivalent.

(2) That there should be no segregation, in the Secondary School or in the University, of students who were contemplating making teaching their work in life, but that they should mix freely and on equal terms with other students preparing for other walks in life.

(3) That practical training should come after graduation.

(4) That after they have started on work in school there should be Refresher Courses and a Sabbatical year for teachers so that they might not lose touch with the changing conditions of life.

(5) That a vocation for teaching is a most important essential, and that adequate means should be provided to see that entrants to the profession have such a vocation.

In view of the diversity which existed in the various countries from which the delegates who had spoken came, it was suggested that the Directors of the World Federation of Education Associations should appoint a Committee to collect and collate information from the countries represented at the Conference on their systems of training, and particularly on the steps taken to ascertain if candidates had a vocation for teaching, and that such information should be made available to all who might desire it.

TEACHER TRAINING.

Tuesday, 21st July.

Chairman—Mr E. J. SAINSBURY, O.B.E., Great Britain.

THE CHAIRMAN: The Session upon which we are entering this afternoon is perhaps in its effect likely to produce greater results in international relations than any other Session of this Conference. We are dealing to-day with the training of teachers. However ambitious we are for the children, we shall fail unless we have teachers of the right sort, teachers of personality, of broad outlook, intellectuality, trained sympathetically and in the right attitude; and after all when we look at international matters I think we will agree that an international outlook can only be acquired in the right atmosphere, and that can only come about by the right attitude of the teacher towards the children and towards international affairs.

To-day we are fortunate in having Professor Findlay of the Manchester University with us, a man to us in England as well-known in University matters as anyone, and those who do not know him will appreciate the fact when I say that he stands in very high estimation in England in all matters connected with education and educational training. It is proposed that Professor Findlay shall give his address, and then Mr Wing, the President of the National Union of Teachers of England and Wales shall follow. After that the subject will be open for discussion. It is a matter which such a large assembly as this must be able to consider in many aspects. I now call upon Professor FINDLAY to address the meeting. (Applause.)

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The Teaching Profession and International Relations.

Address by Professor J. J. FINDLAY.

Professor FINDLAY : There are obviously two aspects of the subject of teacher training.

For the training of the teacher in the narrower sense we look to our Institutes for training—College and University Departments—where older and more experienced members of our profession guide the débutant in his first steps. From this point of view we ask ourselves what sort of attitude towards patriotism and world patriotism should characterise the minds of those who direct these Colleges and what modifications should be introduced into their curriculum in history, languages and the like. I do not, however, propose to open our discussion from that angle since the Training College ought to be, and very largely is, just a reflection of sympathies and ideals which inform the general body of teaching. All these Colleges should be the advanced guard, catching the first glimpse of a new country, ready to inform the young teacher with the aspirations which a new world is opening out to him. Let us then regard the teacher-in-training and the teacher on full service as one body and ask what contribution this international point of view has to make to our advancement, or alternatively what contribution we can render to it.

I have just noted the two parts into which our theme naturally divides itself. Firstly there is the understanding and acceptance of this international point of view as a new experience; thereafter and in consequence there are changes in employment, exercises, curriculum, etc., studies in which the teacher for his own and his scholars' benefit will be engaged.

(1) What then is the international point of view? It is the new view of the world which has brought us together

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in this Conference; and I need hardly remind you it is not new at all, but very old, as old at least as the Gospel whose sentiments we share. It is a breaking down of barriers and of the fences which set Jew against Samaritan, Greek against Barbarian; and assertion of the solidarity of the species and hence of the obligation to love and honour our fellow men amid all the diversities and alienation of race and colour and speech. So expressed, the situation is simple and can easily move an orator to eloquence and an audience to tears. Yet, as we well know, the difficulty is not in the expressing of this pure and lofty emotion, but in reconciling it with conflicting sentiments, with the love of home and fatherland, with the forgetting of bitter memories of conflict between our own and other races. And the teachers' problem is to investigate this conflict, to examine the data as presented to our day and generation with all the aid that psychology and sociology can afford us. To elucidate the problem I suggest two considerations: one drawn from sociology, the other from psychology. Firstly the appeal of internationalism is sometimes regarded as a weakening of sentiments of attachment to home and fatherland. Is it possible to be parentally attached to Scotland if we expand our hearts to love our brother in Italy or China? Can we, calling to mind our national literature from Shakespeare with his "This blessed plot, this earth, this realm, this England!" to Rupert Brooke and his passionate cry—"If I should die, think only this of me," consistently entertain both sentiments. The sociologist replies that the unexampled advance in transport and means of communication characteristic of the last hundred years is now finding a response in an advance in human capacity. We are able now to acquire an extension of knowledge, an extension of sympathy which fits us to meet the possibilities afforded to us by these new openings for exchange. In earlier epochs one great soul here and there, a St Paul, a Caesar, an

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Alexander, a Pope Leo took a world within his grasp : but these were rare exceptions : to-day, and for the rising generation this capacity is possible for millions and indeed must be diffused in the whole world of education. The spirit is that of John Wesley, who claimed the whole world for his parish. Now this spirit is not necessarily virtuous or philanthropic ; it is seen in world finance in the combines of a great industry, in the cosmopolitan range of our great men of science. And I repeat, that it is not or need not be cultivated at the cost of homelier sentiments, but is a veritable addition to capacity, which can be acquired without forfeiting local or national sympathies. We common-place folk of to-day are capable of leading a fuller and richer life than our progenitors ; and since the opportunity is given, it is for us teachers above all to avail ourselves thereof, on behalf of the school and the children.

The second point contributed by the psychologist is not so favourable. It seems as if much of the stimulus towards peace which has accrued from the Great War is not to be attributed to sentiments of love, but to a dangerous and degenerate sentiment : that of cowardice. The horrors of those terrible years 1914-18 is like a nightmare. "Never Again," we say. And the dread is heightened by the chemists and engineers who threaten us with the unspeakable calamities that may befall our children if the hellhounds of War are let loose again. Now it may be right for the statesman on fit occasion to address solemn warning to his fellow citizens on such matters—it is folly to bury our heads in the sand and be lulled to false security—public knowledge of the facts is indeed our duty. But when we feed our minds with dread images of such anguish and misery we are really accumulating the load of cowardice which oppresses us, and we who teach at least have no right to cherish such dark and evil emotions, for our children should be free.

And observe, by a curious perversion—well known to

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the psychologist—this dread of war tends to possess the mind and lead it to dwell upon, to be obsessed by, the memories which should be forgotten—to which I shall refer later. My greatgrandfather, I am told, fought for the Stuarts at Culloden, while my mother's ancestors, stout English as they were, no doubt represented the Sassenach in many a border fight in the north of England. But we have long ceased to dwell upon these features in Scottish or English history—we dwell upon our common heritage in religion and learning, in trade and industry. This change of attitude is necessary in regard to the Great War and all the wars that came before it and the competitions and enmities which led up to it.

The expulsive power of a new affection or the positive support of a congenial occupation and interest will remedy a mind obsessed with dark fears by diverting it to other channels.

Now the capital point I desire to make clear is that this anxiety neurosis, morbid fear and enmity is often a feature of the inner life which clouds the entire attitude of men and women and displays itself in all social relations. Its development or its removal in the years of childhood and adolescence is, therefore, of capital importance and can be allayed at least in many individuals if the atmosphere, the tone, of a school or college is wholesome. The countenance, the speech, the temper of a staff of teachers in the school society is a paramount issue. It is as important for the teacher to cultivate in himself a demeanour of goodwill as for the physician to display the conventional bedside manner with his patient. This is no doubt easier said than done: the thousand and one details of a crowded school and class rooms, which cause friction both between colleagues and children, are trying indeed to many temperaments. But a good disposition can be cultivated, even among those who have a fatalistic belief that habits cannot be modified. I am well aware

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that there has been a mighty change in many schools during say the last thirty years, corresponding to the more kindly atmosphere that now rules in most families; and yet I am equally sure that this change has not worked its full effect. Nor do I desire, in emphasising this point, to range myself with unchartered apostles of freedom. Reasonable discipline and order are essential to good comradeship in any society; above all in a school, since children are willing to accept routine, and suffer little even when the rules necessary to manage large numbers are strictly enforced. The one point to keep in the foreground is the spirit of goodwill and kindness which must be manifest if the child is to find release for his inner spirit in the companionship of teachers and schoolfellows. I hold that this spirit is the foundation of love for one's kind which in later years affords a man the right emotional basis for his international relations. We can obtain full confirmation for this view in what is called "the new" psychology. Our training colleges are certainly finding from the researches of the alienists a far more practical help than was afforded us in the old days when our views of the mental life were confined to the sphere of consciousness. I cannot speak with any first hand knowledge of what has been accomplished, and do not pretend to enquire how far the earlier conclusions of Freud have been set aside by later investigators such as Yung or the late Dr Rivers. But I am convinced that any teacher who meditates upon the general course of behaviour as outlined by any of these workers will find himself assisted, first of all to a better understanding of his own development, and then to a more sympathetic regard for the children whom he serves as friend and guide.

Accepting then this groundwork—the elimination of needless fears and antagonisms within the school itself, what effect does it have upon the treatment of international relations? The same effect that it has upon all large problems of behaviour where a man finds himself

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bound up with great multitudes of his fellows. Everyone of us is so associated in at least three quarters; in religious applications, in our professional, industrial vocation and in our politics. In each and all of them, the same spirit, which seeks to find unity amid diversity will insensibly inform the mind of children who have been educated in an atmosphere of goodwill. Parties there must be, contentions will abound, conflicts are unavoidable, but the mind of a man who has learned to feel with and for his fellowmen will be able to maintain serenity and seek reconciliation even when all around him are soured and bitter. I take it that this World Federation is just an open manifestation by our profession of solidarity and good feeling among teachers of all races and of all creeds finding common ground on which we can act so that, when we come to more definite proposals for reform in each country, we are strengthened by the conviction that all around the globe are thousands of our fellow teachers combined with the same sense of affection, the same freedom from those dark antagonisms and fears that have caused the nations to reject the hand of friendship.

In one respect we teachers (along with the clergy, the civil servants and other social workers), stand in a singular position over against our fellowmen who are engaged in trade and industry. Our calling stands aloof from the pressure of competition and hence from the enmities between nations induced by fears for loss of trade and cannot understand the realities of the world struggle livelihood. We are told with some truth that we teachers because we are shut within the walls of school and college, dreaming fantastic visions of peace and brotherhood, while our fellowmen outside have to fight for their living. We must admit the strength of this criticism; we must acknowledge that the real forces that lead men to fight and destroy each other, whether within the nation itself or in international affairs, spring from competition for wealth and for all that wealth denotes.

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And when we have admitted it, what then? Why, surely the tragedy of these mighty industrial and financial conflicts should only make us more resolute to maintain our faith; or rather, not our faith since our schools and colleges have no monopoly; but the supremacy of those eternal verities for which education has ever been the witness. "A man's life consisteth not in the abundance of the things which he possesseth"; and what is true of a man is true of a nation, even of the county of Lancashire, from which I come, where such acute anxiety is experienced because of world competition in its staple industry. Ever since your famous countryman, Thomas Carlyle, spoke his mind about cotton—a century ago was it not?—the issue has been clear. International no less than national relations are seen to depend upon the extension of "loving kindness" as the Gospel calls it, or of "Mutual Aid," as Kropotkin calls it, on the Exchange and in the workshop as much as in our places of learning. Here I am not expressing any novel view, least of all am I indicating the view of any political party; the topic is *apropos* in this discussion because technology and commerce now look to education and to the teachers to help in equipping the young for their vocation. And it is well that the leaders of industry, in both camps, employers and employed, should realise where the teacher stands over against demands that he should train the young to animosity in those competitive wars of industry which seem to have succeeded to the open warfare of 1914 to 1918. I am confident that the great body of teachers, in every nation under the sun are, by the very conditions of their employment, on the side of industrial peace. We live in a cloistered world where competition for riches has no place, in a society of young people among whom the bitterness of industrial rivalry is only hearsay; we ourselves cannot grow wealthy, even if that were our ambition.

We love our nation and with the rest of our country-

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men deplore the misfortunes that in these days have befallen so many—misfortunes which indeed are seldom far from our personal experience. But with the best will in the world we cannot throw our weight on the side of those who foment jealousies and quarrels whether at home or abroad in manufacture and trade.

I have thus indicated in barest outline the underlying attitudes which the great mass of teachers throughout the world are bound to exhibit in the sphere of international relations. I now come to the second problem, viz., the working out of these attitudes in the curriculum, *i.e.* in the studies which teachers and scholars pursue day by day. There seem to be three branches of the curriculum which are specially involved, viz., Foreign Languages, Geography and History. (a) Foreign Languages :—Every British child should make a start in one foreign language before the age of twelve. This I am well aware is not the common opinion; the Committee appointed by H.M. Government, 1916-18 regarded modern language study as a close preserve for the secondary school. But we have advanced rapidly since then; we now see that the provincial, insular habit of mind can best be overcome by enabling the child to express himself in simple terms by use of a language other than his own (the selection of a language is of minor importance; French is the most accessible). The President of the Board of Education has identified himself with those who urge that the years from eleven to fourteen in our primary schools are not yielding adequate results: the remedy seems to be not just to extend and repeat the pursuits of early childhood but to add a new element in experience, which calls upon novel and stimulating effort both from scholars and teachers. What is done in Holland and Belgium and indeed in all the smaller countries of Europe can surely be attempted by the great nations without sacrifice of national prestige. And while making this plea for French or some other national language before

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the child reaches fourteen years of age, I make another demand, to go along with this, and to achieve even more directly the aims of international goodwill.

Before commencing a foreign language at twelve I would ask for a year to be devoted to Esperanto, if only on the ground that it serves as the best introduction both to pronunciation, to grammar and to the habit of using a foreign speech. I am well aware that this suggestion will not be welcomed in many quarters, but it is high time that Great Britain should be aware of what is happening all over the Continent. In all the large Broadcasting Stations now this language is being used week by week for its true purpose as an "Auxiliary," to help each nation to communicate with the other. It is not designed to abolish our national tongues, or to deprecate in any way the important rôle assigned to modern language study in schools and Universities. It is an addition to our resources, an expansion once more of our powers of sympathy.

If then any teacher asks me, what practical step can I take to advance international goodwill, I advise him to learn Esperanto and come as speedily as possible through this channel into direct communication with foreigners. Here is something concrete, practical, within our grasp; something too which in ten years time will be asked for. Am I too confident in saying ten years? I think not. You will have held four more World Conferences before 1935, each of them held in a foreign country I presume where the babel of tongues will keep the members apart.

[NOTE.—Professor Findlay's references to Geography and History were omitted by him for lack of time.]

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The Function of the Teacher in the Social Organism.

Address by Mr C. T. WING, Great Britain.

Mr WING: The Social Organism obeys the same natural laws as every other living organism in the world around us, and there has been no time in the history of our present or past civilisations when it has not been subject to a constant change. Therefore in considering the function of the teacher in such an organism due regard must be given to the Past with all its achievements and failures, for the Past teaches us how old civilisations have been born, gradually developed till maturity has been reached, remained stable for a time and then decayed and died, only to make way for the birth of another and better system, thus making an ever forward and upward step in the progress of mankind—socially, mentally and spiritually.

The lessons of the Past enable us to understand the Present, and however difficult and dark the outlook may for the moment be they will enable us to forecast the future and prepare the way for the easier advent of those changes which must inevitably come.

All great civilisations of the past have been built up on a religious system, and religion in some form or other has had the greatest influence on the condition and life of the people. In every case, however, the officiating priesthood have sought to gain power and influence and have made themselves an exclusive caste, more or less powerful as circumstances favoured their usurpations. The domination of the priestly caste who with increasing power became increasingly corrupt and the keeping to themselves of the whole of the education of their day robbed the older civilisations of much of their mental capital and was one of the main factors which led to their destruction. Ever since civilisation

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began society has alternated between hope and despair. Greece under Pericles seemed to have almost reached the ideal of refinement and beauty, and it seemed that the dawn had come, but the world soon sank again into barbarism. When under Constantine Christianity was no longer considered a crime and a disgrace but an honour, men thought that Christ was soon to bring the world to peace, but the dark ages followed.

So through the ages periods of brightness and hope have been followed by periods of darkness and despair.

Old institutions, the old social forms, the old ways of life continue after all that is vital within them is dead, for mankind is ever slow to readjust its beliefs and ideals to the changing needs of the day. Always as society moves on into new habits old institutions will be found unfit for use and generally much suffering has to be endured in making the transition from the old to the new.

When early in the last century the spinning-jenny and power-loom were coming into general use in England, the hand-looms in the cottages lost their value, and the hands of the cottage weavers were forced to rest in idleness. The despair of the hungry whom the spirit of progress was starving to death led in many instances to riot; but despair and passion availed nothing. The abler were forced to adopt the newer methods, the feebler and more ignorant died; but industrial society moved on through this suffering and evil into a better condition than it had ever before enjoyed.

Like evils are always with us, new inventions bring about new processes of manufacture, and throw out of employment large numbers of men, who on account of their mental inertia and their lack of suitable knowledge find it difficult, often impossible, to change into a new field of work.

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The growth of the modern industrial system has absorbed practically the whole population and the increasing specialisation and complexity of its processes has made life difficult for the casual undefined worker who can do everything in general and nothing in particular. The fact that the industrial machine is absorbing us all serves to intensify the desire for an emancipating, liberalising, liberating education which will set man free from the domination of the machine even when it uses him.

Many signs are apparent that we are at the beginning of a new Epoch in our civilisation. Declining belief in older methods and older aims, the disappearance of old landmarks, dark portents like the upheaval in Russia, the decay of the older political, economic and religious faiths are all signs of change in the social organism.

The age of democracy has arrived and is in danger of producing some unfortunate developments. None realise this more than its leaders, who also realise that sound knowledge is the cure for such dangers and that the future of society no less than the individual's own happiness and success will depend in a large measure upon his power to understand the world in which he is called to live. Education has been defined as the machinery of civilisation. Society is realising the truth of this and as a result we have in recent years witnessed a great change in the function of the school, which has now become a centre of social service satisfying both the intellectual and physical needs of its scholars. We are realising that only as the race advances can true progress be made, and the aim of the school to-day is not confined merely to the work of training the intellect, but more and more it is being called upon to concern itself with all that makes for the physical, mental and spiritual well-being of those entrusted to its care.

The child to-day is faced with a very perplexing world—a world of things and humanity—and every year

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makes the problem of life more complex. The amazing advance of scientific research and discovery have placed in the hands of society tremendous powers capable of being used for the comfort and happiness of mankind or for its destruction, and science has now annihilated all our old ideas of time and space and rendered the world one compact unit.

With these changes has come a corresponding change in the function of the teacher and the old idea of the teacher as a dispenser of information is no longer adequate, his true function is to explain society and to prepare his pupils to understand life. To do this he must himself get closely into touch with life and understand its everyday problems. A knowledge of the needs of industrial life and of the sufferings caused by past changes will enable him to anticipate and prepare the way for the changes of the future and help to mitigate to some extent the suffering such changes will cause. To function properly he must not confine himself too closely within the four walls of his school, but must make himself familiar with the business and social life of the community in which he is teaching so that his work will take hold on life as it is. It should be his purpose to connect his teaching with the daily life of his pupils and of the community and he should take a live interest in the social movements in which his pupils and their parents are interested.

Professor Clarke describes the function of the teacher as follows :—

“ The teacher has a definite public commission. He is sent by society as a trained ambassador to the kingdom of childhood to explain the society which he represents, all its past in the shape of memories and traditions, history and language, and all its future in the shape of aims and ideals, needs and requirements; he is in short the link between the past and the future, the

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guarantor at one and the same time of both continuity and progress."

The possession of such a trust throws upon the teacher a heavy responsibility, for in his hands lies the hope of the future. A faithful discharge of this trust will give him the sure and certain hope that his labours will secure the dawn of that time when there will be Peace upon earth and goodwill amongst men.

THE CHAIRMAN: We have listened to two interesting and extremely suggestive papers. As both speakers have said, they have not been limited to a narrow outlook, and I therefore suggest that those papers lay a good foundation for a discussion which we may now carry on.

Miss ETTA V. LEIGHTON, U.S.A.: I want to take just a minute to speak about a form of teacher training I supervise. The cost of education is increasing so fast and the need for better training of teachers is so great that in my country we have put a certain plan into operation. We have in my country voluntary organisations of individuals who pay dues to various societies, and these societies help the teachers in various ways. The one that I represent is helping the teachers to teach citizenship—mainly knowledge of our own Government. You all know that if a knowledge of the Government of the United States had been more widely spread in the United States and throughout the world there would have been fewer false hopes and disappointments in the years that have come after the War. We have discovered that many children—fifty out of a hundred—in the United States were leaving the schools without any knowledge of the constitution of their own country. For forty years little was thought about it. It was not being minded. This organisation, the National Security League, took that matter up, and now thirty-five States require that every school, public and private, elementary and secondary, shall teach it, and adults are being taught in the schools as well. The

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moment the teachers were asked to do that work they were confronted with the fact that they needed extra help, and that extra help is being given by our own organisation and others of a similar type. 100,000 teachers are having a free course given to them in their spare time. I thought the delegates would be glad to know what we are doing, and I thank you very much for the opportunity of bringing this before you.

Mr ERNEST BJERKE, Sweden : I feel called upon to address you because some of the ideas expressed by the first leader of the discussion, Professor Findlay, are just the very ones we lay most stress upon in the programme of the Union of which I am a delegate. I refer to the teaching of a foreign language. We started practical work on these lines by sending groups of teachers to foreign countries such as Germany or England. I have just conducted our third party to London, where they have had lessons in English for almost a month. The teaching of a foreign language in the primary schools means that the teacher must learn the language not so much from books as from life in the place where it is spoken. We have sent in to the Government of Sweden a petition for the interchange of teachers between different countries.

I think it is quite feasible for a teacher coming from say, Sweden to learn English to teach subjects he understands leaving English alone; and in the case of an Englishman coming to Sweden he would teach any subject he liked leaving Swedish alone. This would be of much more value and use than this system we have of sending people only in the vacations, provided with contributions from the Government, for some few weeks of study in English or German schools. The third point I wish to emphasise is that the teaching or training of teachers ought to be altogether in the University. (Hear, hear.) We must face this problem and realise that this is the

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only way, otherwise I do not think we shall get any further. I hope that the three suggestions which I have put forward will be of some use. (Applause.)

THE CHAIRMAN: I think the last speaker has touched upon a very important subject, and one which this Federation has in hand and which must be regulated far more effectively by the teachers themselves than at the present time, and that is the interchange of teachers. I can conceive of nothing that is going to help to a better understanding internationally than a well-regulated and well-devised scheme which will enable teachers to leave one country and go to another and learn the ethics and the social life of the country in which they are teaching.

Rev. WILLIAM ROSS, Edinburgh: I am one of the members of the Education Authority in Edinburgh. The last thing I thought of when I entered this hall was that I should be addressing you to-day, and certainly I never addressed a congregation with more trepidation than I do now. But when I heard Professor Findlay speaking of Esperanto he recalled to me my interest in it, and the great practical usefulness of it to the world. I should just like to say this, that every great mind that has studied the subject has been convinced of its utility and of its power for the good of the world. Might I just give you one experience I had about twenty years ago? I was attending a Conference of Esperantists in Berlin. Twenty-two different countries were represented there. I was sitting at a table where no less than seven different languages were represented. Some of us had a slight knowledge of German, but there we were all able to understand each other perfectly in Esperanto. The people of these twenty-two different languages meeting in Berlin were able to understand and appreciate the jokes even of the different speakers in Esperanto. What an enormous help it would be if all the people of the different countries of the world were gathered here with one common

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language. I think it is unfair for us English people to have the advantage. I would ask you to join the Esperantists for this reason, if for no other, that the Esperantists are such splendid fellows—there is Professor Findlay and there is myself. (Laughter.) What does it mean to be an Esperantist? It means that he is a person who hopes, and our hope is for the development of mankind and for the peace of the world. The Esperantist is a born optimist, and, therefore, I would ask you all to join the Society of the Esperantists. (Applause.)

Mr S. OKAMOTO, Japan: I wish to tell you about the Japanese attitude towards various things in their secondary and higher grade schools. In Japan in the secondary schools the English language is taught for about seven hours a week, and our students are very much troubled with the study of it. (Laughter.) In the higher schools, one of which I represent, the graduates of these colleges almost invariably enter universities, so that they must learn German or French besides English. They are very clever, and they do learn these languages, but they are much troubled about having to learn them. I notice here in England there are some medical students who do not know German at all. Now, Germany is very clever in medicine, you have much to learn from Germany, but if you do not know German you cannot get much from Germany in medicine. Besides learning two foreign languages our students must learn Chinese classics and Japanese classics, so that if you had some universal language the Japanese students would be spared much time and trouble. (Applause.)

Mr ANDREW BLACKWOOD, Dundee: My object in coming forward is to take exception to the view that the lady from New York put forward who represented the National Security League. She spoke to us about introducing amateurs. We in Scotland will not have that. We stand out for the properly trained and properly

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accredited teacher, and I hope none of you will go away with the idea that we Scotsmen for one moment will stand for having amateur teachers in our schools. (Applause.)

Mlle. MARTHE BIGOT, Paris: My fellow-teachers in Paris sent me to represent here the International Federation of Education Workers. We are all linked, on the basis of internationalism, to trade unionism, and I want to indicate to this meeting two points that seem to me very important in the training of teachers. There is in my opinion always a deficiency in the courses given to the teachers. They require teaching in internationalism. They want to understand that at our period of time nothing can be done without international work. No scientific work, no artistic work, can be done without a knowledge of internationalism. The teachers must realise that internationalism must become a part of their teaching to their pupils. A teacher must be given to understand what are the principal facts all the world over. He must make his pupils acquainted with all great events. He must lead his pupils towards the help of all people. When a catastrophe arises he must explain it to his pupils, he must make suggestions to them to help those that are suffering. We have been able to see what great feeling can be aroused in children's minds when we spoke to them about the suffering of German children when Germany was in such a bad condition. We saw our French boys and girls collecting clothes, collecting money, to help the famished Russian or German children. In that way we put into the minds of those boys and girls a real sense of fraternity towards all the children of the world.

And another great problem that must be placed before the minds of the future teachers is the problem of the evolution of society. We see that humanity has followed an evolution which we can trace back for some time. Humanity was at first under the rule of force, and after

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that followed the rule of aristocracy of birth, and now we are under the rule of the aristocracy of money; and if I may say so we have to see to it that the future teachers place before their pupils how to solve the problem of the evolution of society towards the predominance of labour in the future. I cannot in those very short moments go over all the subjects, but I think all teachers if they desire a better future for mankind must not fail to get acquainted with those very serious and important problems. (Applause).

Mr PAUL HANSEN, Denmark: I really got a very great shock when the last Scottish speaker went up and gave his sharp blow to the unskilled teacher. I do not want to say that teachers should have no training—I think they should have the best training possible—but, on the other hand, I think that we are very often apt to forget that we must have schools for life and schools for education. We must never forget that there are people outside the class of teacher who probably know more about life than the teachers do, and, therefore, we can always get some help from those people. (Applause.) I want at the same time to say, of course, that we ought to improve the education of our teachers as much as possible. We must try at the same time to make our teachers human beings—to make them understand life better than they do at the present time. (Hear, hear.) We have got training colleges, and we have got universities, and our teachers do get knowledge about a good many different things, but sometimes they do not know life at all, and that is one of the greatest horrors of the education of our time. (Applause.) And that has to be changed, and changed as soon as possible. In Denmark there has been a discussion just recently on that point. At our training colleges the teachers have a training of three years, and now we want to extend that to four years. The Minister of Education proposed that all students going into our training colleges

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should have a secondary education beforehand. Well, I am very much opposed to that, and I shall tell you why. The best teachers I know of come from the farmer class and from the working class, or from some people who have been out in life and have done their bit, they have done some years of practical work, have had some practical experience of life—they have done all they could to save money for their teacher training. They felt they had a calling for being teachers, and later on they went into the training college, and I can assure you they turned out to be the best teachers of them all. We must give them the praise that is due to them, but at the same time we must try to get teachers who know our people, otherwise we shall not get teachers at all. (Applause.)

Mr S. B. LUCAS, London:—The discussion this afternoon has ranged so widely that it is rather difficult to know the exact point at which to take it up, but I want to say one thing at the outset. Mr Wing told us something in his paper about the place of the teacher in the social organism. Now, the idea of the average member of the general public about the place of the teacher in the social organism is very often this, that the teacher is a creature of inferior intelligence, with very little backbone, although occasionally he may have a sting in his tail. Now, the other speakers from other countries have given views very different in character. I was very much impressed with what the last speaker said, the speaker from Denmark, because his view is very different from the point of view now prevailing in England, which, I think I am right in saying, is that before the teacher has his special training in teaching work he should have secured a University Degree. That is the line upon which we are thinking more or less in England, and it is a change to hear the opposite view, namely that the teacher should have practical experience of life; and that brings me to the main suggestion which I wish to make.

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It seems to me if we are to gather up the results of the speakers this afternoon, if we are really to gain from this great Conference the practical good that it ought to give us, there ought to be some means of collecting together the experience of teachers in all countries of the world—to bring these experiences together before an appropriate Committee of this Federation, in order that the Federation itself may come to a considered opinion as to the really best method of training teachers in order to secure the ends which we are desirous of achieving. It may, of course, be impossible. It may be that the systems of training that are in existence in the various countries of the world are so diverse that it would be impossible to reconcile them, but, at any rate, let us have a thorough knowledge of the various systems, and let us try if we possibly can to pick out the best in each of them, in order that we may as a Federation contribute our quota to the problems which are before us. (Applause.)

Mr B. SKINNER, Aberdeen: When my friend Mr Blackwood took the platform I hoped that he was going to explain the Scottish point of view, but he had more important, or at least other, work to do, and therefore it has been left to me to explain just in a word or two what is the attitude of the Scottish teachers to this problem. Speaking for myself, first of all, I should say I join with the Chairman in expressing the opinion that almost everything in the success of the school depends upon the teacher, and therefore this, I think, is the most important problem that this Conference is discussing. Further, the teacher's main duty is to teach. It is not to become directly or consciously a missionary of any "ism" whatever, or of any "doxy" whatever; the teacher's duty is to prepare pupils for life and living. Now, in selecting teachers in the past—even in Scotland where we pride ourselves that education is on a high standard—we went on very wrong lines. Whom did we

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select as teachers? In many cases they were those who could not qualify for other professions. And even up to a year ago in Scotland we were content if some of those who were going to be teachers had gained a certificate lower than what was required for matriculation. Latterly we have got rid of that lower standard, and what the teachers of Scotland aim at is as follows—first, that there should be no segregation of pupils in the secondary schools; secondly, that those who are going to be teachers should be educated side by side with those who are going to enter any of the other learned professions, and that they should take the certificates that others who are going into other professions have to take. Having taken that certificate, the pupil will be able to enter the university, and here I join issue on behalf of the teachers of Scotland with the gentleman from Denmark. There may be exceptions, but we cannot legislate for exceptions.

If any born teacher has gone in for farming and finds he can do better work in the teaching world we will welcome him provided he has the necessary education, but we hold that the ordinary teacher should have a University Degree, that having taken the University Degree he should have the training afterwards, and only at this stage will any segregation take place between those who are going in for teaching and those who are going in for other professions. That will contribute towards solidarity amongst the various professions. Further, after the teacher is trained we hold that the teacher ought to have opportunities for refresher courses, that teachers ought to have a sabbatical year, and to those who are afraid that this may mean an expenditure of money I think it ought to be made plain that we spend a good deal of money on more doubtful schemes. It would pay the country because the teacher himself would be refreshed, he would come back and come into contact with the children and get from them the inspiration which they alone can give, and he would commun-

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cate to them out of the fulness of his knowledge and experience that which would benefit the children and, therefore, which would benefit the world. (Applause.)

Mr PAUL GIBSON, Ceylon: I did not intend to speak, but it seemed to me, perhaps, a pity not to acquaint you with some of the problems that face us when training teachers in Ceylon. I wish I were a Ceylonese that I could speak to you exactly from the heart of those people, but I am one who for seventeen years has taught and studied the Ceylonese people, and I feel, although I cannot express it in full, that I can enter into it in some way. What we found first of all was that our teachers were listening to a great deal and taking in a great deal, but then although they were doing that they did not, partly from their lack of thought, spirit and training within themselves, really learn to work without being taught, so that when they left us they very quickly lost most of the advantages that were to be gained from education. For a long time one hesitated to do anything even approaching the Dalton plan, because of the very little there was in the way of literature for them to use. But two years ago I brought in the thin edge of the Dalton plan, and this last year, just before I left to come here, I started on the whole scheme. That is to say, all students during their three years with us are absolutely taught to do their own work under supervision, with the help of the whole staff, and the result is that during the first year it has been tremendously good, and I look for even greater results the second year. The more clever students do not seem to have provided very much in the way of statistics because they have always been working all right. It has helped us to wipe out some of the very bad ones. Our students go out into the villages where they are thrown on to their own to a very large extent, and if a girl does not know how to carry on after such an experience then it is not the fault of the training which she has undergone.

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Agriculture has been included in their course, and they do practical agriculture at the Institute. They get lectures in agriculture from a neighbouring Government Agriculture School, and we have also developed expression work there in the way of art, pottery painting for the men, and weaving for the women, and we have linked up that with social service. I just mention these facts, coming from Ceylon as I do, to show that we in Ceylon feel the importance of the problem which is set to the teacher. (Applause.)

Miss THORA PEDERSEN, Denmark: It was not my intention to speak here to-day, because I am not a good English speaker, but when I heard Mr Hansen speaking from the platform I could not let it be said that what he put forward was the view of the whole of the Danish teachers. There are 12,000 teachers in the same Union, and we have so many secondary high schools in Denmark that it is very easy for any man or woman who wants to be a teacher to go to these schools and get the necessary preparation. But we want something the same as you have here. Here you must go into a University, which in Denmark is the same as it is all over the world with a secondary high school education. I must say that practically all the Danish teachers are in favour of the proposal set forth by the Minister of Education in Denmark, which is practically the same as it is in this country. (Applause.)

Miss CONWAY, Liverpool: I just want to emphasise the point that has been made by the last speaker with regard to the education of the teacher being taken in the secondary or higher schools of the nation, and being taken alongside their colleagues who are going to follow other vocations of life. I think one of the most effective ways of getting at what Mr Hansen from Denmark has said is necessary for the teachers is for them to work side by side with people who are not quite in the same

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line as themselves, to rub shoulders with them and to exchange views with them. We in England have suffered in the past by the segregation of our teachers into small groups, with the result that the teachers thought themselves a little class apart, and had far too big an opinion of their own ability. I think there is nothing so good for us teachers, who are continually meeting people who lay down the law, as to meet people who will occasionally put us right, and the way to do that certainly is to meet the rank and file who belong to other professions.

We feel with the last speaker that it is most important that every man and woman who is going to become a teacher should have a thoroughly sound general education before they begin their work. It is one of the great difficulties of the position, and we shall never be satisfied until we are able to get that ideal. I also feel if a man like Mr Hansen is the kind of man who comes from the farm into the teaching profession—I do not know whether he is speaking of himself or not. . . .

Mr HANSEN: I am referring to many hundreds.

Miss CONWAY: Then I am going to say there ought to be some method of getting men and women of that kind into the profession. I do not want the methods to be too narrow to prevent that kind of man coming in, but as Mr Skinner says they must be able to pass the same test as the man or woman who has gone through the secondary school. I think this meeting has been very useful and very informative, and I have very much pleasure indeed in adding my little quota to the programme.

Professor WELINKAR, Hyderabad: I come from India, and it was my work in Bombay, in Western India, for six or seven years, to supervise the training of teachers, and afterwards when I left Bombay and went to Hyderabad—the place where I am working at present—for the first seven years my work there was concerned with the

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organisation of the teachers, and, therefore, it is from a fairly wide experience of Indian conditions with regard to this vital problem that I am speaking to you this afternoon. The social conditions I need not say are very different from those of the West, and this question of the training of teachers is such a comprehensive one that many things which are of absolutely great importance here are not so important in India. But there are certain universal aspects of this great question, and it is for these universal aspects that this Conference stands.

We are not concerned as a Conference with the technical details of teaching; I take it that it is the human aspect of this great question of the training of teachers with which as a Conference we are primarily concerned. Everyone acknowledges that the personality of the teacher is the supreme factor in education, and this is a very important fact for us to bear in mind. If our training does not help to develop the personality of the teacher then I say the training has failed. (Applause.) I do not go so far as the gentleman from Denmark in saying that your teacher ought to be a cultivator or ought to be an artisan before he can make a good teacher. I quite agree with the Scottish view that a teacher is there in the first instance to teach. But at the same time the teacher has by universal admission to be guide, philosopher and friend to his pupils, and unless his training develops his personality, makes a true man of him, and a leader, he will fail as a teacher.

Now, what we used to find in India was this, that in the teachers' colleges our teachers learned their books, they were very clever in understanding the technical side of education, but with regard to social conditions and life in general they knew very little. I have frequently had occasion to examine our teachers, and what I invariably noticed was that everyone of them repeated almost the same thing; they were like so many gram-

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phones; the things they learned from their books and their lectures they repeated. I often said to a teacher, "I do not think the class understood that question. Will you put it in another form?" and many of them were not able to put it in another form. Now, this is the sort of thing we must remedy. The teacher must be able to act as guide to his pupils, and, I think, we can only do that by helping the teacher to absorb the best mentality of the social organism to which he belongs. We send our teachers to training colleges and there in a narrow environment they learn their work, which means when the teacher comes out he is very learned in his books, but as a guide and as a man he is very deficient. We ought to devise some means of making the teacher move in a wider society so that when he comes out of the training college he will be better fitted socially to act as a teacher than he was when he went to the training college.

The second point I want to emphasise is with regard to the importance of travel. This is a very large subject. There are only two remarks I wish to make. The teachers are generally very poor men, and if we could help them to travel more widely I think we would really be helping their education, and one of the things we have to consider is how we can put wider opportunities of travel in the way of the teachers. (Applause.)

Mrs AMANDA LABARCA, Chile: As a Professor in the University in Chile, I am very interested in the question of training teachers, and I come here to express some of my doubts, not to give you any lesson, because I am not fitted for that. We have in our country, and I think in many countries, many children to educate, and we have very few real teachers who build souls on characters. I have seen that not only in my own country but in other countries I have visited during the past few months. I have been asking the future teachers why they wish

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to become teachers, and the answers I got were all different, but in very few cases have they answered that they had a vocation for being teachers. They wanted to be teachers because they needed a profession. They wanted to be teachers because their people wanted them to be teachers, because they had a father or a mother who had been a teacher, and so forth. I personally feel that a complete secondary education is necessary, but at the same time I think if you do not have a real vocation for being a teacher, it does not matter how good your previous preparation has been, you will never be a teacher. (Applause.)

I also agree with the gentleman from Denmark who said that sometimes the living preparation was as necessary as the technical preparation. You can do it both ways, I think. At any rate you have to be essentially a teacher in your soul. I do not believe that teaching is a science, I think it is an art, and I think that art needs inspiration, and afterwards it needs technique. I would make a suggestion that if a committee is going to study the preparation of the teachers and how teachers are prepared in the different countries the same committee should study how vocation is discovered for the future teachers in the different countries. (Applause.)

